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A GUIDE FOR INSTRUCTION IN MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES, GRADES 4-12.

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THE VARIETY OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING SEQUENCES IN MINNESOTA HAS CAUSED A SERIOUS ARTICULATION PROBLEM--BETWEEN LEVELS WITHIN A GIVEN SEQUENCE, BETWEEN SEQUENCES, AND IN INTEGRATING DIFFERENT SEQUENCES AT THE MORE ADVANCED LEVELS. TO HELP ALLEVIATE THESE PROBLEMS THREE COURSES OF STUDY ARE SUGGESTED AND DESCRIBED IN THIS GUIDE. SEQUENCE A (GRADES 4-12) ALLOWS A STUDENT TO OBTAIN A REAL LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY BASED ON AN INTUITIVE UNDERSTANDING OF THE CULTURE AS WELL AS THE OPPORTUNITY TO BEGIN A SECOND MODERN LANGUAGE LATER IN HIS SECONDARY SCHOOL CAREER. SEQUENCE B (GRADES 7-12) PROVIDES A STUDENT WITH A GOOD FOUNDATION IN A MODERN LANGUAGE. SEQUENCE C (GRADES 9 OR 10-12) PROVIDES THE STUDENT WITH THE NECESSARY FUNDAMENTAL SKILLS. A CHART DETAILS TIME REQUIREMENTS FOR EACH SEQUENCE LEVEL AND A LIST OF DESIRED GOALS. TEACHING TECHNIQUES, MATERIALS, ACTIVITIES, AND COURSE CONTENT FOR EACH LEVEL ARE DISCUSSED IN DETAIL. INCLUDED ALSO ARE SECTIONS ON DRILLS, THE LANGUAGE LABORATORY, PROGRAMED LEARNING, EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION, AND TEACHER EDUCATION, AND A BIBLIOGRAPHY OF MATERIALS. (AF)

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in

MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Grades 4—12

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DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
St. Paul
1965

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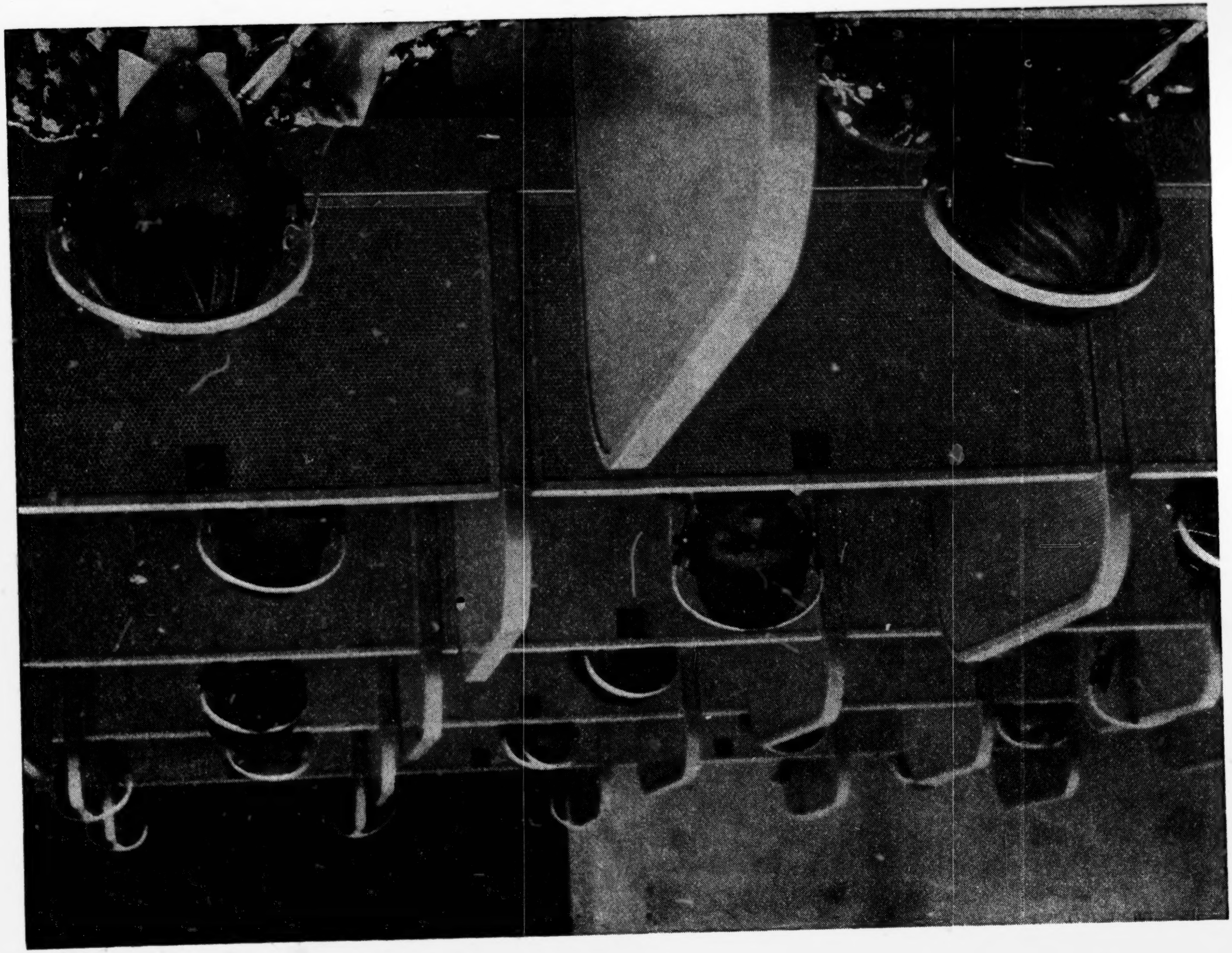

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Chapter I

SOCIAL SCENE

This is an age of profound change; indeed, rapid change seems to be the very essence of our daily lives. It is not at all improbable that more significant changes will take place in the next decade than have been experienced in the last fifty years. When one considers the immensity and challenge of the world undergoing this transformation, the aspects of it are not only frightening and almost overwhelming, but also very promising. In the foreseeable future some of the areas in which the greatest changes may occur are nuclear energy, electronics, medical science, agriculture, transportation, psychology, social psychology, and communication. The last of these elements, the communicative aspect which the coming generation faces is the subject and purpose of this present guide. It is not unreasonable to predict that in the near future when the current world population of almost three billion has increased by several billion inhabitants, communication between peoples will become more important and will affect the life of the individual citizen tremendously.

Methods of communication tomorrow will differ greatly from those which are known today. World-wide television is a reality while satellite communications and electronic innovations are already making intercourse between continents as commonplace as local telephone calls. Communication, and the skills required to use it effectively and purposefully, will no longer be the task of the few; the entire population will participate in this form of world cooperation.

A few statistics about the current scene will provide valid illustrations for the increasing urgency for more effective communication and understanding on a global scale. In 1960 over two million Americans received passports for travel abroad, almost one-half of whom visited countries in Europe; approximately 20,000 Americans work in the diplomatic service; about 200,000 people are employed in federal agencies in foreign countries; over 7,000 work in the foreign service; over one-third of the three million in the armed forces are stationed abroad. To this figure of Americans living and working in other countries can be added the numbers in student-teacher exchanges abroad, the Peace Corps, the Point Four programs, the ever increasing business contacts resulting from the growing Common Market as well as other commercial ventures overseas and the various American missions located in numerous countries throughout the world. Travel abroad is no longer as limited as before and today it is used more than ever for living, working, and studying. An understanding of the political, social, economic, and cultural forces which propel this changing world with ever increasing speed is essential if the United States is to fulfill its responsibility as a great nation. In short, the question of language education becomes a matter of acquiring a skill demanded by a dynamic modern state. "Never have so many Americans encountered so much foreign speech with so little equipment for communication and so much depending upon communication." [1] The new perspective takes in the world as a whole. America has often been misunderstood and wrongly criticized for her role in the modern world. However, her critics are unanimous in attacking her linguistic isolationism. No attempt must be made to inflict the English language upon the emerging nations; on the contrary, an attempt must be made to gain favor and friendship by meeting these peoples on their own ground and through their own language. The old slogan, "Let them learn English," is less valid than ever.

In order to meet the challenge of peace and the threat of war an educated citizenry is essential in the world of today and of the future. The prevailing order of the future might well be oriental, or African, but it will assuredly be marked by Western thought. The rest of the world has adopted Western concepts of industrialization, large-scale enterprise, economic welfare and advancement, and the mass media of communication and propaganda so readily that the monopoly of the Western countries in the knowledge and skills required in industrial and military technology no longer exists. To preserve world peace, indeed to preserve existence itself, an effort must be made to understand other peoples and to work in harmony with them. The emergence of a common, basically Western civilization on the world horizon with the purpose of preserving free man in a free society, constitutes the great challenge that faces the world today. Involvement with the underdeveloped countries has become, above all, an opportunity to invest in the future.

Role of Language

It would be unrealistic to assume that language study in itself will accomplish international understanding, yet no one can deny that an understanding and an appreciation of another person's thought processes will contribute to a sympathetic discernment of the relationship between individuals. It is difficult to gain insight into another man's culture through any other language than his own, a fact which clearly illustrates the case for longer sequences of modern language study in our public schools. Only with an enlightened citizenry, equipped with the skills required for modern communication, can we hope to play a part in the changing social scene.

Our nation's development can be effective only if its youth is educated to the limit of its potential. The acquisition of a working knowledge of the structures and processes in communication of the sciences and of the creative arts provide for today's student a fine liberal education, which should create

[1] Parker, p. 101.

understanding and behavior that will become a part of the very lives of the learners. This training which students should have in common enables them to better serve as individuals and citizens in our free, democratic society, and in the world society of the future. A function of language learning, as of every subject in the American school curriculum, is to develop in the student a curiosity for more learning and a desire to continue his education through any avenue of learning which might be available to him after his formal schooling has ended.

National Goals and Modern Languages

In 1938 the Educational Policies Commission stated the purposes of education which are generally accepted by both the professional and the lay community. They are the objectives of self-realization, human relationships, economic efficiency, and civic responsibility. The study of a modern language plays an important role within this framework and implements each of these objectives.

Self-realization

The study of a modern language arouses an intellectual curiosity in the student. Through the unfolding of another culture new vistas are opened which offer unlimited opportunities for inquiry, comparison, and creativity.

1. The study of a modern language helps the student to grow in his ability to think rationally, to express his thoughts clearly, and to read and listen with understanding. It makes him conscious of language as a tool for communication and as the vehicle for the transmission of a culture. He gets *direct* experience in manipulating another language and becomes skillful in analyzing and contrasting language structures. The element of pleasure derived from the involvement in another language is often one of the most stimulating and gratifying aspects of language learning.
2. In a technological society a student needs to understand the method of science and the influence it has on human life. Through the study of a modern language the student extends the resources he has at his command for gaining information and solving problems in other fields of learning. He becomes conscious of the universality of scientific endeavor in discovering facts concerning the nature of the world and of man, and of all peoples' striving for the good life.
3. In a technological age which allows more and more free time the student needs to learn how to extend the scope of his leisure-time activities in ways which yield satisfaction and which are socially useful. He uses the modern language as an avocational pursuit by participating in goodwill organizational activities, in theater, opera, ballet, radio, film, and television. He enjoys a greater variety of books, folksongs, art songs, magazines, newspapers, and local and foreign cultural activities.
4. The student needs many opportunities to develop his capacity to appreciate beauty in literature, art, music, and nature. In the study of a modern language he should learn to break his culture-bound attitude toward beauty in literature, art, architecture, music, dance, handicrafts, and nature by sharing vicariously and directly in the creative activities of the foreign people and understanding their form of artistic expression. He widens his aesthetic horizon, which in turn extends his capacity for self-expression and creativity.

Human Relationships

The study of a modern language tends to foster a respect for humanity. The student becomes aware of the universality of human problems, which know no national boundaries; he learns to appreciate and to respect the merits of other cultures and other peoples.

1. As he learns the modern language he participates in the culture of a foreign people *directly* through use of their communication skills; vicariously he participates in their daily lives, their holidays, their work and play. Friendship on a personal level often results as the ability to communicate develops.
2. The student learns about the role of the family in another culture, and the social relationships which exist, and their effect on the individual, his particular society, and the world.

Economic Efficiency

1. The student can make a study of the foreign language, its area and civilization, his career.
2. A command of a modern language will be of considerable value in any number of professional and commercial areas.
3. In his professional and commercial dealings with representatives of other cultures, the student must know about their concepts of work and their cultural attitudes toward work.
4. In his professional and commercial dealings with the peoples of other cultures, the student must understand casual relationships between the physical and social environment; for example: the effect of climate and environment on customs, diet, consumption of goods and services, architecture, recreation, for example, and their effect upon the social and economic life of the country.

Civic Responsibility

Through the study of a modern language and its culture the student becomes a more intelligent citizen of his own country.

1. The student increases his effectiveness outside of his national community. Competency in a modern language permits him a kind and quality of relationship which does not exist without this tool.
2. The student learns to respect the values and customs of other countries as being as valid as his own.
3. The student realizes the interrelationship of cultures: the contribution of other cultures to his own, and of his culture to others. As a result he appreciates and treats with respect his fellow citizens of foreign birth.
4. Existing attitudes of fear, distrust, or disapproval of that which is foreign tend to diminish as the student becomes alert to other peoples' hopes, achievements, and frustrations.
5. The student develops an *awareness of* and an *interest in* the world as a whole. He becomes less provincial and more world conscious as he recognizes his place in the common task of working for peace and understanding.

Immediate Objectives

The study of another people, their culture, and their language aims at the following objectives in the acquisition of skills, information, and attitudes. Not all students will attain these objectives to the same degree. This will

be tempered by the level, capabilities, and environment of the individual student, the length of the program, and the competency of his teachers.

Listening Comprehension

I. The language learner progresses from
   a. The understanding of the educated native when he enunciates carefully and speaks simply on familiar subjects
   to
   b. The understanding of some conversations of average tempo, simple lectures, and news broadcasts
   to
   c. The understanding of normal group conversations, plays, movies, and the more sophisticated radio and TV programs.

Speaking

II. The language learner, as he learns to speak with a pronunciation and intonation readily understandable to a native, progresses from
   a. Using the common expressions needed for getting around in the foreign country and speaking with a pronunciation and intonation readily understandable to a native
   to
   b. Talking on prepared topics without too much faltering
   to
   c. Commanding sufficient vocabulary and structure of the language to express his thoughts in sustained conversation and being at ease in social situations.

Reading Comprehension

III. The language learner progresses from
   a. Comprehending directly the meaning of simple prose
   to
   b. Reading with comprehension prose of average difficulty, without too much recourse to the dictionary (1:60) [2]
   to
   c. Reading with enjoyment newspapers, magazines, and literature—as an art form and as a reflection of culture.

Writing

IV. The language learner progresses from
   a. Copying and writing from dictation materials which the student has already heard and spoken
   to
   b. Writing correctly material such as he develops orally for classroom situations
   to
   c. Writing a short, simple letter
   to
   d. Writing a free composition with clarity and correctness in structure and idiom.

Cultural Analysis

V. The language learner
   a. Becomes aware that language is the oral and written expression of another way of life
   b. Obtains a working knowledge of the geography, history, literature, fine arts and handicrafts, social customs, and contemporary civilization of the people whose language is being learned
   c. Obtains a firsthand knowledge of the literary masterpieces
   d. Analyzes the foreign culture and contrasts it with his own
   e. Through correspondence, travel, or residence abroad establishes friendship on a personal basis

Analysis of Language Structure

VI. The language learner
   a. Obtains a working command of the sound and structural patterns of the foreign language and a knowledge of its main differences from and similarities to English
   b. Obtains linguistic training and insight which facilitates the acquisition of other languages

[2] An article in the Modern Language Journal of some years ago states that if a student must look up more than one word in sixty it is impossible to call the practice, reading.

Chapter II

PRINCIPLES OF SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

Any teacher, whether he be a teacher of modern languages, mathematics, the social studies, or the sciences, needs to know as much as he can about the psychology of learning. A majority of foreign language textbooks and much language teaching of the past have been based on a classification of the subject matter of language. Very little consideration has been given to how the individual, especially the young person, learns.

An instructor must know clearly (1) what he wants to do, (2) why he wants to do it, and (3) what principles of learning he must have in mind as he selects the ways in which to do it. Thus it is desirable for the modern language teacher occasionally to review some learning principles which have a direct bearing on the teaching and learning of modern languages.

Learning results in an observable change in the behavior of an individual. It is dependent upon an individual's physical being, upon the social groups to which he belongs and upon his own psychological organization.

The social groups which influence the development and learning of the individual include family, church, school, the peer group, the classroom group, and the community. These groups consciously and subconsciously communicate their value systems to the growing individual. They usually pre-determine the kind of learning which a growing individual will accomplish. They impose the standards of excellence and the age levels at which certain kinds of learning tasks must be mastered. The ways in which these groups respond to the individual's learning attempts have a major impact upon him.

Because of this interaction between the growing individual and his social environment, he derives *meanings*: meanings about his physical environment, about the social institutions around him, about other people, and about his "self." These accumulated meanings not only are an indication of what the individual has learned but they will strongly influence what he will learn in the future. They constitute the individual's psychological organization, complex in all of its aspects. This psychological organization of the learner confronts the teacher in each individual he has in his classes.

Learning involves the acquiring of new ways of doing things. Learning a second language is the acquisition of a new mode of behavior for the learner. The teacher, by helping the student learn the new skills of a second language, by directing his attention to the best techniques for making active use of it, by helping him see the factors relating to his success, by giving him a feeling of confidence and security assists the learner, and his resistance to some of the rigorous and unpalatable tasks disappears much more readily. The accentuation of the positive aspects of the learning situation, the warm supportive relationship between the learner, the teacher, and the class group facilitate the progress of any student in any learning situation.

Readiness

The slow, orderly unfolding of the human being physically and psychologically determines in large measure the timing of the learning tasks of which he is capable at any given moment. The teacher plays a major role in the what, how, and when of learning. A knowledge of child and adolescent psychology will help him determine the timing of the specific tasks to be learned in his subject-matter field.

The use of language is dependent upon the maturation of the neuro-muscular connections. Acquiring the pronunciation, the intonation, the automatic feel for the *meaning* of the *structure patterns* are the tasks best learned at very early age levels — pre-kindergarten, kindergarten, and grade school levels. The increasing rigidity of the neuro-muscular system at later age levels makes the above mentioned tasks more difficult to learn. When a language is learned at later age levels, the language laboratory must play an important role in overcoming this lack of early language training.

At later age levels the language teacher is challenged to identify those language learning tasks which are contingent upon the learner's ability to symbolize at the verbal level, to analyze, discriminate, and generalize about what he has learned.

The teacher must also capitalize on the curiosity of the learner, his particular interests at that age level and the competencies he has already acquired. He should help the learner feel that what he is learning is significant and has positive meaning at the moment as well as later. When the content of the subject-matter field is appropriate to the learning level of the youngster it will generate in him a feeling of personal control over the materials to be learned. To succeed in this aspect of the learning situation the teacher must be aware of the interests and potential of his students in order that he can arrange the learning tasks appropriate to their ability. Some of the characteristics of children and adolescents which might be of help to the teacher in determining what to do in the classroom are listed in Chapter IV.

Learning To Do By Doing

Practice does not necessarily make perfect, but *perfect* practice does make perfect. Developing proficiency in a language is like developing proficiency in playing a musical instrument. One can pick up a certain amount of ability in playing the piano by trial-error imitation just as one picks up a modern language through informal association with the speakers of that language. The proficiency developed depends upon the opportunity the learner has to practice the language, upon his level of insight and his desire to learn. Much will also be dependent upon the correctness of the models which the student has chosen

to imitate. However, if the student is fortunate in having an expert guide him, progress will be more rapid, proficiency more professional than if he relied solely on his rather inadequate powers of observation and trial-error learning.

Competency and facility are achieved only to the extent the student practices and uses the language. The student who has received some basic training in German under the guidance of an expert teacher has a greater chance of getting more out of his association with the German people on a trip to Germany than will the student who relies solely upon picking up the language over there as he associates with the natives.

The Model

The quality of the language learned will depend upon the correctness of the models the student is given to imitate — in most cases it will be the teacher alone, in many cases there will be native informants, voices on tapes and records, and film presentations. Young children, most of all, need to be taught by careful modeling and demonstration. By modeling the learner has an opportunity to listen, to see, to respond vicariously. If the material is meaningful and significant for him, he perceives the unit or dialogue to be learned as something he also wants to do. He sees the unit of language as a whole — pronunciation, intonation, gesture, and expression, without becoming aware of each as a separate element. Thus a model or demonstration puts the student in close psychological relationship with the experience or behavior he wishes to acquire.

The model must be accurate and as near native as possible. At the very beginning of language learning, *especially* when it is begun in the elementary school, it is absolutely necessary that the teacher has a near native pronunciation and intonation and that he is familiar with the habits and customs of the people whose language he is teaching. If he does not have a near native pronunciation and intonation, he must rely upon good models on film, TV, tape, or record, or he must find natives who come to the class several times a week to help and to check the progress being made.

Nor is the task finished when the correct model has been given. The learner's responses must also attain a near native quality. In addition to the teacher's careful guidance in the classroom, mimicry-memorization drills in classroom and laboratory supply the additional practice which demands individual involvement and response. If the learning task has been carefully graded and structured the learner should soon attain a near native manipulation of that particular unit of language behavior which has been modeled for him.

Using the language and practicing the language are of great importance in preventing the student from becoming self-conscious. It also prevents a weakening of his self-confidence. The teacher's top job is to avoid having the student become afraid to say anything for fear of violating some rule or being corrected every time he opens his mouth. Overcorrection is a negative deterrent in building *Sprachgefühl*. No skill is ever learned without some errors.

If mistakes are regarded as difficulties to be overcome rather than something to be punished and ridiculed the teacher builds the basis for a positive attitude in the student toward learning from his mistakes just as any intelligent person does. When a student practices his drills knowing that this is the way he should do it to overcome the particular difficulty he has with the language, the learning to do by doing is intelligent learning rather than the blind trial-error activity one so often sees in language classroom and laboratory.

An important function in a language teacher's duties is to adjust the content and activities in his class to the levels of insight his students have so that the possibilities of error will be reduced to a minimum. The teacher provides the experiences by teaching speech patterns through activities comprehended by and particularly suited to the learner's age group. Meaning is provided by short conversations and narratives which can be utilized in the every-day situations of the learner and his peers.

In the development of the passive skills, listening and reading, the teacher must develop follow-up materials which demand overt, active responses either orally or in writing. Here the learning task should consist of listening or reading for a specific idea, securing a particular bit of information, or solving a problem or a task which is of significance to the youngster. This will assure the teacher that the learner is actively involved with whatever he is listening to or reading.

The teacher must always remember that explanations, drills, and exercises are exceedingly helpful, but *primacy* must be given to abundant opportunities for the student to hear and read the language in natural situations to develop a discriminating ear and eye, and to speak and write the language in emulation of good models.

Practice

Meaningful practice tasks must incorporate frequent repetition to bring about enough overlearning to guarantee retention. A drill or an exercise is not appropriate unless *the unit of language behavior practiced results in the most efficient acquisition of the skill desired*. In mastering language the appropriate drills and exercises demand much repetition. One does not learn to type, play the piano, or speak a foreign language without considerable repetitive practice. Mimicry-memorization drills, substitution and transformation drills habituate associations. However, the efficient learning of a skill requires a delicate balance between repetition and understanding. Mere repetition is not enough. The practice must have a purpose. The learner must understand what he is doing and why he is doing it in the manner prescribed. The teacher can never assume that a student's correct verbal response signifies understanding. Drills and practice exercises must be constructed in such a manner that the students are on the alert every minute of the drill period.

Overlearning consolidates changes in behavior which are permanently desirable. Proficiency in a modern language results only when the learner ultimately associates all the correct responses with the appropriate cues. For example, the change in a student's language behavior has come about only when the student learning Spanish will automatically use the formal *USTED* form (response) when addressing the teacher (cue) or an adult (cue), but the familiar *TU* form (response) when talking to his peers (cues). The important factor is that the drills and practice exercises are as similar as possible to the real situations for which they are supposed to prepare the students.

Distributed Versus Massed Practice

Teachers in junior and senior high schools need to think seriously about the arrangement and length of time spent on learning tasks such as drills and practice exercises in their modern language classes. In the elementary school the classroom teacher is free to manipulate the time arrangements of the learning

tasks she must handle every day. In the learning of skills such as are required in a modern language the teacher needs to know how best to carry out the drill and practice sessions needed to make the language functional and automatic.

Drills and practice sessions can be presented in small or large doses. When practice is concentrated in long, uninterrupted periods, it is massed practice; when it is distributed over a period of time, it is distributed or spaced practice. Studies concerned with the relative effectiveness of the two treatments in verbal learning show that for best results practice should be spaced. A few drills and practice exercises daily for a week will give better results than many such drills and exercises bunched in one long session.

The shorter the practice session the greater the learning that occurs. Experiments that worked with practice periods of 15, 30, 45, and 60 minutes in length showed the 30 minute practice period to be the most effective. The optimal length and spacing of the practices depend upon the kind of learning task and the age of the learner. Research finds that large amounts of material intended to be overlearned should be spread over several periods. Difficult materials require that periods be shorter than for easy materials. Young children should have shorter learning periods than older students.

When the amount of work involved in learning is great, when the material to be learned is complex or not particularly meaningful, when the possibility of making errors is likely to be high or when motivation is low or the amount of effort required high, the practice should be spaced.

Massed practice periods are favorable if the task is highly meaningful, when insightful learning is possible, when the material has previously been overlearned but during a prolonged time interval the forgetting has been great, when peak performance is required on tasks already well known, or when prolonged warm-up periods are necessary to become involved in the task. For example, a student has had three years of French in his early high school years and finds he has been given the opportunity to spend his junior year of college studying at a French university. In the intervening three years he feels that he has forgotten most of his French. Two to three weeks of highly concentrated practice and review with the assistance of tapes and records would enable him to recall his previous learning quickly. The speed with which he recalls the language depends on the degree of overlearning in his previous learning of the language.

New tasks should be given to children in small quantities with short initial practices and short rest intervals. Gradual lengthening of the practice periods should follow. This, of course, is necessary in order to do a good job of reentering previously learned materials. The daily practice session promotes retention of learning and faster recall when the language is needed in a spontaneous situation.

Review

Since permanent recall, or habituation is the AIM in learning a modern language, learning to the point of immediate recall or recognition is not sufficient. The skills must be overlearned. Learning a language is a cumulative process and is dependent upon previously acquired knowledge. To secure retention students should review frequently, at short intervals, almost immediately after the original learning has taken place and then after longer and longer intervals as the time from the original learning increases.

Frequent or even daily review prevents the deleterious effects of fatigue and interference due to the piling up of too much material at a single sitting. They give the student numerous opportunities for consolidating and integrating the materials he has learned in as many different ways as the teacher provides for him. Frequent testing stimulates review and has a salutary effect on retention. But testing must be regarded as a means of promoting learning rather than measuring it.

In the new materials being developed for the learning of French, German, Spanish, and Russian, the dialogue, conversations, drills, practice exercises, and narratives incorporate in systematic fashion previously learned utterances and structures to provide a constant review of the earlier materials learned.

When students start to read and write the language the review materials developed should demand recall. Re-reading or re-listening is not enough. True-false or multiple choice items, answering questions, changing a narrative into a play or vice versa, writing short skits, reviewing the plot of a story, writing a character sketch, a description of a situation — these are only a few of the techniques used to review and fixate the original learning.

Reinforcement Or Reward

The acquiring of a new habit or behavior is brought about by conditioning — stimulus-response — and by reinforcement. Any response or utterance which brings a reward is learned more easily. If the learner knows what he is doing and the purpose for his doing it, knowing that he is doing it correctly is a reward in itself and will reinforce his behavior. Rewarding or reinforcing a desired response has a tendency to increase the probability that the response will be repeated again in a similar situation.

Drills and practice exercises should be arranged so that when a student makes a correct response he is immediately rewarded. A smile and a nod of the head after a correctly given response is more effective than any big reward given later. Marks on tests returned several days after being given do not have much learning value. Language laboratory drills and exercises are based on immediate reinforcement. Programed self-instruction is effective to a considerable degree because knowledge of success is fed back immediately after the learner responds.

The real skill of the teacher is shown not in correcting or punishing but in *creating situations* in which the learner cannot help respond correctly. Rewarding is more effective than criticizing and ridiculing. These have uncertain effects upon learning. They most likely bring about avoidance tendencies on the part of the learner and a mind-set is established against learning the language which prevents any further progress. The relationship between the learner, the classroom situation, and the teacher is also disturbed.

For reinforcement or reward to play a maximum role in learning, the structure or utterance to be reinforced must progress from the simple to the complex. The careful introduction of only one element at a time, substitution and transformation exercises and drills — all these newer techniques in teaching language reduce the possibility of error almost to the zero point. It is estimated that in a properly conducted learning experience the student should make the correct response 95 percent of the time.

Providing the learner with a knowledge of results and helping him *learn how* to overcome his errors is probably the most difficult task the teacher has to face in a group situation. The principle of reinforcement if carried out conscientiously would increase the learning of students remarkably. Equally important is the fact that *erroneous responses, if not corrected immediately, persist*. If the learner makes errors which are not corrected, he tends to accept and retain them as correct. Once these errors are ingrained it is almost impossible to eradicate them. If *immediate* and *positive* reinforcement leads to increased learning and retention, the language instructor should utilize this technique in as many ways as possible.

Transfer of Training

It is possible to practice a skill perfectly but so differently from the way it is actually to be used that there is almost no transfer from one situation to another. A great deal of foreign language activity can be so categorized. Verbs are practiced in isolation; the vocabulary is different from that used in the situations in which the student finds himself; oral and written drills and exercises are in the form of disconnected exercises which are like jigsaw puzzles rather than in the form of meaningful topics normally found in reading, writing, and conversation. A student with his mind set on form and mechanics might do excellent work in translating exercises and fail miserably in the writing of a letter, carrying on the give and take of normal conversation, or delivering a report on a subject of concern to the class. Thus, practice may be perfect but the results are questionable since transfer is handicapped by *differences* in the *learning situation* and the *actual situation in which the language skills are to be applied*. Transfer occurs only when there is a close similarity of the component elements or when the learner has the ability to generalize and apply what he learns to various situations. Transfer cannot be taken for granted. The student's ability to analogize and to see applications depends upon his background of experience, his level of insight, and his previous conditioning in this direction.

Interference

There is an automatic transfer in the learning of a second language of which the teacher must be aware. It is usually called *interference*, the interference of the speech patterns of one's native language. Interference can be almost negligible as in the case of the bilingual who learns his language during childhood. This fact also speaks for the introduction of foreign language at an early age level, since the adolescent and adult can find this interference a considerable handicap.

The teacher must constantly be *aware of* and give *special emphasis* to the points of interference. The automatic transfer of the learner's native speech habits must be drilled out of him. The mental set of the class must be completely in the foreign language environment. After the structures which interfere with each other in the two languages have been carefully examined the practice work and all other activities of the class must be steeped in the foreign language and its milieu. English must be ruled out. The student must not only get an automatic feel of the lexical meanings of the modern language but *most of all* he must get the feel of the structural meanings or, in other words, the grammatical meanings of the patterns.

Discrimination and Generalization

The student has one other ability which can assist him immeasurably in acquiring new learning — his ability to perceive configurations or patterns, his ability to discriminate and to generalize. These can be of great value to him in learning a foreign language.

Any language is an elaborate system of patterns. The patterns of one's native language are manipulated automatically without thinking. Thousands of stimulus-response situations have brought this about. No already established system of speech patterns of another language interfere. Learning such as takes place in acquiring our own native language demands a long period of time, a pliable mind, and an environment which tolerates only the speaking of that specific language.

In the formal school situation such conditions are almost impossible to achieve. This means use must be made of every ability the student has to help him attain the same kind of control of the foreign language that he has of his own and this attainment must be accomplished in a shorter period of time. The stimuli-responses of the drills and practice exercises must be so designed that the student becomes aware of the way the language is structured. The new foreign language materials are very carefully doing this. This does not mean mastering grammatical terminology and dozens of rules. The chief aim is that the student is made *conscious* of the constructions of the language and how they follow a definite pattern. The ability of the student to perceive this depends upon his intelligence. It will take many more exercises and analogies for the less intelligent student. Educational psychologists have found a high correlation between I.Q. and a student's ability to manipulate the grammar or structural system of the language when he learns it at a later age.

The perception of a pattern, however, does not mean that the student ceases practicing his drills and exercises. He has not yet mastered the pattern although he is well on the road to doing so. To use patterns and structures automatically means continuing to drill and practice them in varied contexts and situations until they have been overlearned. Only such practice can give the mastery wanted.

The examples and illustrations used in the drills and exercises should relate closely to the learner's level of maturity and his interests. If these drills are built into meaningful context and in many different situations, the intelligent students, some of whom balk after having discovered the way a specific structure works, will find overlearning a much more palatable task.

The number and variety of examples required before a student perceives a pattern depends upon his ability. The teacher must provide much practice and guided observation so that the student will generalize and transfer a particular mode of response. He will have to do much more of this for the less able student than for the intelligent student.

The generalization should come from the student. A generalization discovered by a student is more permanently retained than one given by the teacher or found in the textbook. It may take a little longer but the results are more rewarding. The student has learned to do by doing.

The processes of discriminating and generalizing need to be carefully nurtured and developed. Understanding a principle about how a structure works improves transfer to new situations. We do not always know whether the lan-

guage the student is learning will be the language he may use later in life. Should he need another, training based on the above principles will be of great help to him in the acquisition of his third and fourth language.

Reference To Experience

The unknown cannot be appreciated or experienced except in terms of the known. It is ridiculous for students to learn the working principles of a language in terms of a grammatical terminology more difficult at times than the foreign language itself. Students can readily memorize rules and definitions without applying this knowledge to the language itself. Reducing grammatical terminology to a minimum is a real need in the learning of foreign languages. "The second person singular subject pronoun" can more easily be understood if reworded "the word *you*." Instead of saying "the definite article" it is much clearer to the student to say "the word *the*." The time and effort consumed in explaining grammatical terms can be better allocated to active use of the language itself.

In the area of pronunciation students can be taught to discriminate sounds more effectively and to notice the subtle differences in pronunciation by comparing the pronunciation of certain identical cognates in the learner's language and the target language. Under the teacher's guidance the students will be able to hear for themselves these differences between the foreign sounds and their nearest approximation in the native tongue.

In the area of reading and vocabulary building the principle of reference to experience also plays a significant role. There are a great many cognates among the Western European languages. This stock of cognates can provide an effective nucleus in terms of which the meanings of the non-cognate words can be explained. Of course, they are intended only *to suggest* the meaning. Materials developed with this technique facilitate comprehension and would make possible the use of more idiomatic vocabulary constructions, more mature informational content without distracting the students from the thought expressed by constant vocabulary thumbing. At the intermediate level the parenthetic use of non-cognate words which have already been assimilated by the student serves a similar purpose.

Foreign words and utterances are best learned and retained when presented in context, in association with objects, actions, and conditions which are their referents. Authentic representation of situations as they occur in real life is thus the best way to convey words and utterances which the learner is likely to use. A dialogue in the classroom between students would not likely include random statements like, "This is a green hat." "This is a blue dress," for example. However, in a role-playing dialogue which represents an exchange of statements between a mother and her child the communication would likely be as follows:

John: Where is my green hat, Mother?

Mother: I think you left it in the car.

The meaningfulness of the phrase "green hat" is acquired through its relationship to other words and sentences in the dialogue and is more apt to be used in a real situation. Practice exercises thus become the prototype for the unit of behavior or language the learner wants to acquire. A great help in acquiring meanings in language learning is the development of experiences with the use of visual aids such as charts, illustrations, filmstrips, slides, and short films.

Insuring meaningfulness through references to the experiences a student has makes for ease of acquisition and recall. Teachers must avoid the pitfall of having children learn language through *rote learning*. In rote learning it is the sequence that is being learned. If meaning and understanding are to be developed or transfer is desired, other means must be found to achieve them. For example, in the rote learning of a dialogue by the time it is memorized thought activity has almost ceased. The fact that a student can recite a dialogue is no assurance that he understands it or that there will be any transfer. Teachers must use many means to insure the understanding of the dialogue. Meaningfulness can be facilitated if the material in the dialogue is patterned rather than unorganized so that relations can be more readily established. Relationships should be made with what has already been learned. Understanding will be increased if the materials in the dialogue relate to the practical activities of the learner, even more so, if the learner actively engages in the activity.

Insight

Learning is more efficient when the learner proceeds from the simple to the complex. This does not mean proceeding from meaningless parts to meaningful wholes, but from simplified wholes to more complex wholes. For example, in the learning of a dialogue or the reading of a narrative the student is first exposed to the selection in its entirety several times to get the thought of the selection clearly established. The material then is divided into suitable small segments. These are learned thoroughly. Finally, the entire dialogue or narrative is reviewed to secure the adequate organization of the parts into the total associative train. During this process the learner has acquired the material in depth and grasped the details thoroughly. If a student has a specific problem with pronunciation, it would mean little for him to study the production of one sound apart from another; if he has a problem with a structure, the study of a noun or verb becomes meaningful only as it is seen in relation to the other parts of the structural unit. The teacher gives the necessary explanation and has the student practice the necessary drills only when these are needed to fix and facilitate specific vocabulary, structure, or usage with which the student is having difficulties.

No amount of theorizing, no amount of practice in fitting individual parts together according to rule leads to proficiency in using language in actual live situations, be these listening, speaking, reading, or writing in the foreign language. If such activity were effective, teachers who have theorized about language and manufactured language in countless translation exercises should be as proficient and fluent in a language as a native of that language. Sadly enough, this is not the case. Practicing and overlearning the individual segments of a language does not guarantee a mastery of the whole. What good is a perfect pronunciation if the student does not have the vocabulary and control of the structures to say anything? In language, the thought group, a combination of words, their arrangement and the intonation given, determines the meaning of the individual words and often represents a concept different from any one of the components of the thought group.

At the very beginning of the student's language career he should have the opportunity to listen to short illustrated talks, or a brief dialogue which is acted out about something of interest to him. Carefully constructed oral and later written drills, questions, true-false statements, should stress the significant in-

formation. With a great variety of such practice, pronunciation, intonation, vocabulary, and structure are learned in terms of worthwhile informational topics — in terms of the whole.

The teacher who makes maximum use of the principle of insight will see to it that his students will have abundant opportunities from the very beginning to hear and use the language as a means of communicating wants, ideas, and information. It is best to practice the language skills in the ways they are to be used to assure their being used.

Motivation

Interest and motivation are crucial in any learning program that normally extends over a period of three or more years. In the case of a skill that takes a considerable period of time to acquire the desire or will to learn is of greatest importance. This is especially true where the elementary level is foundational and *must be lasting*. In the process of building this foundation the student must also develop a *lasting interest* which will make him want to use the foreign language later in life. There is not much sense having a student spend years in learning a language just to lay it aside and forget it. Unfortunately, this happens far more often than those in the field care to admit.

Not for a moment should the teacher forget that as the student is learning the language he is also learning *that which he is thinking and feeling as he undergoes the learning process,* and the more positive these are the better the retention.

A student sometimes learns a language in order to escape the punishment of the teacher, to get a good grade, or to get the approval of his parents who want A's on the report card. False goals such as these are likely to engender quick forgetting of the language since the immediate need has been satisfied. However, if a language is learned as a tool which equips the learner for some of the necessary tasks in a world shrunk in size, the motive is fundamental and the learning is not as easily subject to extinction. This motivation is what the foreign language curriculum should strive for.

A teacher must capitalize on *what is being learned* in the foreign language class. In too many instances the language course is a potpourri of grammar, a dab of cultural material usually in English plus a great deal of activity without direction. Insipid reading materials, sterile oral and written exercises dull the desire to learn to listen, speak, read, or write. Classics in the foreign language are read which are far beyond the linguistic abilities and maturity level of the students even in the advanced classes. The infantile stories so often found in the beginning readers are far below the maturity level of the students in the elementary classes beginning at the seventh, ninth, or tenth grade levels. The conversational materials and the talks to which the students listen, the stories and articles which they read, the songs they sing, the poetry they learn must have significance and interest or the students' skills will not increase no matter how often words and structures are repeated in keeping with a scientifically derived frequency list of lexical items and syntactic structures.

Any new vocabulary and structures in basic sentences which the student learns before he listens to a selection or talk or reads a story or an article will be easily learned if he knows that they will have a message for him. Vitalizing the foreign language program through worthwhile content at all levels of instruction is extremely important. The content should develop significant insights, attitudes, and interests in the *contemporary* life of the student and his society. Every major foreign culture has had and is still making an impact on the history, the arts and crafts, the science, the customs and social institutions of today. This is the bottomless reservoir from which to draw the content of the foreign language course. If such material is used the modern language class can make a significant contribution to the education of young people. But when language ceases to communicate and the focus is solely on the study of its structure, it soon interests only a few potential linguistic scientists in the class. The task in general education goes far beyond the training of these few.

Motivation becomes more difficult if the teacher limits the tasks to a specific set of materials to be learned in the classroom. Learning occurs in a larger setting. The whole school situation, often involving extra-curricular, out-of-school and community activities as well, contributes to the student's behavior and unless these more inclusive and broader aspects of experience are taken into consideration for motivating learning, the teacher will be less successful in producing the desired results.

Using language means communicating, exchanging words and ideas with someone else — a listener, a reader, a correspondent, or a group of persons. In the average class the students recite to the teacher who spends most of his time correcting and criticizing the "how it is said" rather than the "what is said." The other students in the class usually pay no attention to the recitation. They are more concerned with "when their turn comes." Building the right audience situation for a class implies that the student or students performing must have something of importance to offer, something that is not already known to the group and the group must be responsible for getting the message.

Pen pals, tape pals, the exchange of correspondence, materials and tapes between the classes of the two countries, community projects like the twinning of an American school or town with one in the foreign country whose language is being taught, short wave radio and Telstar broadcasts, TV, films — all these provide motivation and excellent learning possibilities. Certainly the number of people striving to communicate personally with other cultural groups is growing by leaps and bounds with our increased world inter-communication achievements. It is up to the creative genius of both teacher and students to capitalize on such opportunities.

If students feel that they are making progress towards the goals or objectives they have set for themselves, learning becomes interesting for them. The teacher must plan with his students the goals they wish to attain and interpret to them the relevancy of the learning activities in class and laboratory to those accepted goals.

The *experiences* in the foreign language course must intrinsically be of interest and related to the learners' purposes. If what is being taught ties in significantly with some experiences or desires they have, the learning will take place more readily. When children learn to speak or read a foreign language they should see the point in acquiring these skills. The content of the lesson, the problem to be solved, the generalization to be made should be significant for them.

Teachers should note the characteristics of the children and adolescents with whom they are dealing. Every teacher, in every classroom, faces in his students differences in attitude or mindset which determine whether what is done in the classroom has meaning and stimulates, or is dull and pointless. Children are interested in the space age, in animals, in the workings of nature, for example. They are interested in fantasy, in things historically remote. They are

also addicted to repetitive activity for its own sake in play and mere verbal communication. They will repeat current TV advertising slogans until they drive one to distraction. These are the immediate goals for them.

As the children move towards adolescence, other long range goals and needs take the place of these immediate goals. The growing emphasis on language prerequisites for college entrance and professional competency, enriching one's cultural understanding or literary scope can become impelling drives.

Outside of college entrance requirements, vocational interests can play a major role in motivation, although frequently they are not clear enough and are too remote in time to form the basis for organizing a language program. Immediate opportunities to use the language in out-of-school activities or employment afford excellent opportunity to motivate. Students should be made aware of the potential value of knowing one or more foreign languages in almost any walk in life and that a working knowledge of one or more modern languages is a distinct asset in securing a position. The teacher should also capitalize on the specific language interests of the students and should differentiate the activities and content of the course in terms of a job analysis of the language needs in certain types of work.

Due to the fact that drives are so varied and so important, the teacher's understanding of the individual student becomes increasingly more significant. Knowledge of what the drives are, why and how they change, their strength and weakness at a particular time is a valuable asset. In addition, the personal motivation and enthusiasm of the instructor must be such that he is capable of inspiring and setting his students on fire. Through the methods and procedures he uses and through guiding students in acquiring new drives and interests, he should contribute to their having satisfying learning experiences. Thus we see that valid inventories of the interests and the needs of learners at the various age levels are basic to curriculum development.

Summary

Let us summarize what has been discussed in connection with the principles of learning which have a direct bearing on what is done in the teaching of a modern foreign language. Language may be said to have been acquired when the learner has incorporated it into his behavior pattern. If later he has used the language, we say he has *remembered* or *retained* what he has acquired. *Transfer of learning* occurs when whatever he learns in one situation can be used in a new and different situation. Thus, the relationship among acquisition, retention, and transfer is fairly direct — nothing can be transferred unless it is remembered and nothing can be remembered unless it is thoroughly learned in the first place.

The modern language teacher who expects youngsters to acquire a language must implement certain learning principles:

1. The original learning must be taught as meaningfully and thoroughly as possible.
2. There must be continued practice or overlearning with immediate reinforcement soon after the materials have been acquired.
3. The material must be reviewed periodically thereafter.
4. The nature of the material to be learned and the conditions under which it is learned *markedly* influence how well it is learned originally, how well it is retained, and how well it can be used in situations other than that in which it is learned.
5. Learning tasks — materials used and activities developed — which have significant social value, which are properly graded in difficulty to the students' present achievement level, and which focus upon principles and meanings are remembered and transfer better than does material of low meaningfulness acquired by rote memory.

Chapter III

METHOD

Psycho-Linguistic Approach

This chapter will attempt to give the teacher a bird's-eye view of a modern language course in accord with psycho-linguistic research and the objectives of learning languages in the twentieth century.

Listening-speaking skills can no longer be ignored. In addition to the increased need for speakers of foreign languages in today's world, linguistic and learning theories support the idea that the approach to modern language instruction should be audio-lingual in nature, that the development of the listening-speaking skills is basic in language learning. Therefore, aural-oral practices should precede learning to read and write at the beginning levels and must continue to play an important part in class activities at the intermediate and advanced levels.

Audio-lingual instruction is based, first of all, on the premise that the learner will best learn the sound system of the foreign language without interference from printed symbols for which he has already an established set of responses. Secondly, the audio-lingual approach has two highly regarded benefits: (1) a basic phrase or sentence can be imitated and repeated orally far oftener than in writing, and (2) oral classroom and laboratory practice permits immediate correction of errors.

Audio-lingual techniques are also based on the importance of practice in *using* language rather than *talking about* it. Language learning is often compared to learning to play the piano or learning to ride a bicycle. The analogy suggests the importance of practice as opposed to theory. Lastly, audio-lingual instruction based on psycho-linguistics is designed to provide intensive practice on conflict points between the native and the foreign language. Such conflict points are places at which the second language learner makes mistakes because his native language habits conflict with the new second language habits he wishes to acquire.

The audio-lingual approach is *not* the conversational approach nor the direct method approach. It emphasizes the ability to pronounce accurately and with proper intonation those basic patterns and constructions of the foreign language which the students are learning in dialogues and other basic conversational sentences. Teachers using the audio-lingual approach do not show off their conversational fluency; they limit themselves to that portion of the language which the students are expected to learn.

Listening is of utmost importance not only because it is the key to all speech but also because it controls what the speaker says, reads, and writes. At the elementary level of language learning, priority is given to the development of listening comprehension and speaking ability since they reinforce each other. At the more advanced levels of language learning of the two skills much more time and emphasis is given to the listening skill than to speaking, although speaking is also developed throughout the language course. Naturally, the ability to speak will, in time, be outpaced by the listening skill. This can be noted in the development of our own native listening and speaking abilities.

The same can be said of reading and writing skills development. The learner will always hear and read (passive skills) much more than he speaks and writes (active skills). Progress is more rapid in developing the listening and reading skills but good retention of these passive skills is strengthened through the development of the active skills.

Descriptive linguists hold today that the listening-speaking skills should, at least, in the beginning stages of language learning, be kept separate from the reading-writing skills. When the transition is made to the reading-writing phase it must be done in terms of materials already learned well at the listening-speaking stage. Finally, it must be pointed out that *all four skills must be practiced at all levels* and kept up to par. Some time should be given daily to all four skills in every language class.

Method

The method a teacher uses is justifiable only if it takes into consideration:

1. The objectives of the course
2. The learning principles involved
3. The efficiency in time and effort — permanent retention of another language is the goal
4. The age level and the characteristics of the learners
5. The previous training of the learners
6. The materials available
7. The empathy between class, teacher, and individual student

These seven factors are fundamental to the development of a good foreign language program.

The teacher teaches *a language* and not *about a language*. He must accept the fact that students learn to do only *what they do* and that he must adapt his materials to the needs of his students, which means, he does not cover Book I the first year, Book II the second year, and so forth. He sees to it that whatever is learned in the modern language classroom must be learned well, in fact, overlearned. If all the material in Book I has not been learned during the first year, he extends it into the second year of language work. This is perfectly admissible since students to be competent in using the language do not know 60 percent or 90 percent of the language — an A's worth or a C's worth. They know every bit of that which they have learned or else they cannot handle the language easily and fluently.

The teacher must have available all the information about what the learner has learned in his previous years, what background he comes from, and what he is planning to do in the future. It is unforgivable on the part of the language teacher to commit a language course to passing the college board entrance examinations or a similar objective. The College Entrance Examination Board (C.E.E.B.), is at the present time also, however slowly, changing its testing procedures to be more in harmony with the new objectives and second language learning principles.

The teacher must command a wide variety of procedures and materials from which he chooses. There is no longer an excuse for using improperly designed materials. He should acquaint himself with the new courses, especially those designed for nine-year, six-year, and four-year sequences, since the problem of articulation from level to level and across sequences is an especially crucial one. Switching from one book designed for the new approach to another book designed for the grammar-translation approach is devastating for the student and for language learning.

The new language courses contain classroom materials and detailed teacher's manuals outlining procedures, records or tapes for the language laboratory and homework, quizzes and tests, workbooks, and audio-visual aids. In some cases the courses are based on the teaching film or filmstrip.

The Audio-Lingual Phase

Before one starts to speak his native language he listens to quantities of spoken language for hundreds of hours. Much of our knowledge is acquired through listening to our native tongue. When teaching a second language, the learner has to be conditioned to hear a whole set of new sound patterns with a new intonation and to attach — *in a flash* — meaning to the new sound combinations. This the learner must do in much less time than he had in learning his native language.

One of the common errors today is the failure to give students adequate opportunities for *listening* to the modern language *at all levels* from the elementary through the advanced. The audio-lingual experiences must provide for students' listening to conversations other than those involving the teacher and his class. From the very beginning students should be exposed as much as possible to the sounds of the language correctly spoken. Listening experiences should be provided by persons who have native accents and who speak naturally. The teacher should provide abundant opportunities for systematic and intensive practice exercises to promote discriminatory listening.

One of the most important reasons for conducting a class entirely in the foreign language, taking care of routine matters such as roll call, giving directions, talking about social amenities, such as concern about one's health, the weather, greetings, using the foreign language when talking to students outside the confines of the classroom is to foster alertness to foreign language sounds.

A short period at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end of the class hour may be devoted to a listening exercise presented by the teacher or on a tape. On a drill tape of 15 to 20 minutes in length, for the sake of variety and to break the monotony, there are two or three minute interludes devoted to a listening exercise — a few true-false statements about everyday happenings in school or in the community, a riddle or puzzle, a short narrative, a newscast, the first verse of a popular song, a short poem, rhyme or jingle, a motto, or a saying from a great writer. Some of these are chosen for their value in introducing aspects of the culture.

At the first level, the language used in the listening exercises should be limited as much as possible to the vocabulary and structures already mastered by the students. Later new words and structures can be incorporated. These, however, must be explained beforehand, either on the tape or by the teacher. Occasionally the teacher may wish, without previous explanation, to play a listening exercise with a few new expressions in order to give the students practice in using context clues. Tapes making use of many different native voices are important for listening exercises.

There are two types of dialogues or conversational materials for student listening practice. One contains the key structures for later drills and practice exercises, and the other focuses on the development of listening comprehension only. The latter should really be one of the culminating activities of a language lesson. At the intermediate and advanced levels, the dialogues for listening comprehension should contain natural native speech and in some instances the students should become familiar with some of the dialectical coloring. Parts of the sound tracks of some of the commercial films make good listening exercises. The purpose here is to give the students a chance to hear several styles of spoken language.

Some listening exercises should be so structured that the initial conversation or narrative to which the students listen is repeated with appropriate pauses for students to repeat the phrases. Repetition by the students of what they are listening to reinforces the learning and conditions them for oral work.

At later stages the listening experiences should be longer and the difficulty of the material increased until at the advanced levels the student should be able to listen to, and take notes on, a lecture about a subject with which he is familiar. The tape and the language laboratory clearly become an important adjunct to the language teacher at the advanced and intermediate levels. It is the material on the tape, such as conversations among natives, taped correspondence or tape pals, readings of modern prose and poetry, especially ballads, one-act plays, radio plays, skits, popular songs, as well as folk songs, film sound tracks, TV and radio commercials, and other programs which promote and extend the listening experience at the advanced levels.

Any listening exercise or tape should be evaluated in some way to assure the teacher of having active and attentive listeners. The distribution of worksheets on which appear questions, true-false statements, or multiple choice items are immensely helpful. See section on audio-comprehension drills.

Planned listening activities are valuable for all students. In addition, these exercises provide an excellent means of taking care of the individual differences in the class. Supplementary listening exercises should always be available for pupils who are willing and want to do more work than the average.

There are five steps a learner must go through to learn to speak a language with assurance: 1) recognition, 2) imitation, 3) repetition, 4) variation, and 5) selection. These learning steps must be kept in mind by the teacher at all levels — elementary, intermediate, and advanced. Some of these steps will be emphasized to a greater or lesser extent but they must be observed no matter whether the learner is child, adolescent, or adult.

Recognition

In the first step, *recognition*, the teacher guides the students in identifying the forms of the language such as the sounds and the intonation, the words, the phrases, and the structures. As these elements are identified, the lexical meaning is also made clear. Lexical meaning is gotten through context, gestures, visual aids, role playing, and from explanations, at first in English and later in the foreign language. During the recognition, imitation, and repetition phases the teacher spends much time walking around the classroom modeling the phrases and sentences.

Imitation

If students are not firmly grounded in step one, step two, *imitation*, can only result in rote learning, which is of little value to the language learner. Imiation puts the learner on the road to acquire the active skill of speaking. He now learns *to do* by using the utterances he recognizes. He repeats immediately after the model which can be the voice of the teacher or a voice on the tape. Later he reads and writes the model sentences. Performing immediately after the model imprints aurally and kinesthetically the correct language habits. This stage is carefully supervised and monitored by the teacher. Such supervision can best be done by *using the tape recorder* in the classroom to provide the model, thereby freeing the teacher to give his undivided attention to the individual students as he walks around in the classroom, his ear carefully tuned to the individual responses. Saturated practice with step two makes it easier for the students to memorize the basic sentences or the dialogue. In most cases, the student has the dialogue memorized before he is aware of it. In order to insure no rote memorization the teacher frequently checks on meanings by going back to step one.

Repetition

The third step, *repetition*, challenges the learner's memory. Now the student reproduces the foreign language without an immediate model. English habits will interfere at this stage if stages one and two have not been thoroughly exploited. At this crucial stage the teacher *must not allow any incorrect language habits*. They must be noted immediately and the students must return to imitating. Memorization of the patterns or the dialogues *involves large scale* repetition.

Variation

In step four, *variation*, the teacher guides the students in producing utterances partly similar to and partly different from the models acquired through imitation and repetition. This stage is best handled through innumerable and varied substitution and transformation drills where in the former different vocabulary is used in the same grammatical patterns, and in the latter different grammatical patterns are drilled with the use of the same vocabulary items. These drills are expanded and extended to the limit of the particular language level the student has reached at the time. Question-answer practice, directed dialogue, and conversation practice enhance the variation stage. The students at this stage will again be helpless if the teacher does not insist on overlearning, with understanding, in stages one, two, and three.

Selection

The final and most important step, to which the profession has not given enough attention, is the free response or selection stage. Once the learner controls structures and a basic vocabulary he should be able to select freely from his memory the responses or utterances needed to communicate with others. At the elementary level these responses are carefully structured and limited, but at later levels the student is given more latitude. To insure immediate recall of correct responses, however, the teacher sees to it that students are continuously reviewing that which has been previously acquired. He must provide for systematic re-entry of materials learned in earlier lessons.

The teacher will find that the English language habits will interfere with the development of the new patterns, especially at the early stage in language learning. If this happens frequently, the teacher moves back and proceeds step by step until he feels the students have arrived at a safe place to move forward again.

At the first level, students are asked to practice orally only those sentences which they understand meaningfully, read only those sentences which they have practiced orally to the point of fluent control, and write only those sentences which they have completely mastered in terms of understanding, speaking, and reading. At the more advanced stages there will naturally be a greater and freer handling of the vocabulary but not until the student has completely mastered the basic structures of the language can the teacher allow students to "play" freely with language orally and in writing.

Although at the intermediate and advanced levels accuracy in pronunciation must be watched constantly, more and more emphasis should be given to fluency in speaking. The variation and selection stages become more and more prominent in the classroom. Certainly risks are involved and the student is apt to make mistakes, but he must have the opportunity to use the language more freely.

When new materials are developed with more advanced grammatical structures, the rigorous procedures with drills and practice exercises used at the elementary level of language learning must be repeated. A systematic review in key pronunciation sentences of the sounds which conflict in the native and target languages becomes important so that the teacher can judge the continuing oral accuracy of the students.

Even at the intermediate level the major portion of the spoken word is based on something the student has already learned through the ear and through the eye. He still needs models and controls to make sure that he produces correct language. There is still a need for rather explicit directions in which the student is told what to include in a topic for a short conversation or a talk.

Intermediate students are encouraged to create their own dialogues based on what they have listened to or read. They should express their own ingenuity within the limits of the materials learned. They should be encouraged to learn selected conversations, short plays, and skits. Discussion of materials read promotes oral fluency. Visuals become stimuli for classroom discussion and even laboratory work. Students make their own commentaries for a series of slides, a filmstrip, or a film. The one-act play for a foreign language festival or a P.T.A. is also of great value in maintaining the oral fluency of the students at the more advanced levels. Competition is keen when there are several casts for the play. Whatever oral work is done in the classroom, if it is to be of value, must be such

that the other students in the class are responsible for getting the information discussed.

Oral work should never be in the form of recitation by the student for the teacher only. It is the responsibility of each member of the class to understand and get the information which a student, or students, produce orally in the classroom. The emphasis is on the message as well as the manner in which oral work is delivered.

The Dialogue

Many experts in the field of language learning regard the dialogue as most practical for teaching language structures in context. It is a valuable instrument in learning the spoken language because it is basically *conversational* style rather than book language.

The dialogue is usually built around an interest-centered situation and develops a conversation between two or more individuals as it would occur in the milieu in which the foreign language is spoken. At any level it should present material that the student can use immediately.

A workable dialogue at the elementary level of language learning should not extend over eight to twelve lines. The utterance or sentence which the students are to imitate and memorize should stay within the seven syllable limit. The difficulty of comprehending, remembering, and giving back more than seven syllables in sequence can readily be understood when one contemplates the concern of individuals in having to commit to memory telephone numbers of more than seven digits! An occasionally longer utterance is permissible and may be challenging.

If a statement or utterance exceeds the seven syllable limit partial "backward build-up" practice starting with the end phrase should be worked through by the teacher and the students. This never leaves a student in midair, the important intonation of the sentence remains intact. Backward build-up, furthermore, enables the learner to move from a new element to an already practiced phrase which he knows he can do correctly, thereby increasing his confidence.

The dialogue and all oral exercises are developed and practiced at normal speed. Classroom procedures, especially at the elementary stage, are characterized by much choral work in imitation of the teacher or of the voices on the tape which serve as models, first by the entire class, then by halves, then rows, before asking the individual student to respond. It is one way of getting around the embarrassment of some students, especially the older adolescents, when they have to perform before their peers. When a student hesitates or fumbles, the teacher immediately supplies the proper model for immediate imitation by the student. The teacher should do this, not another student. It is wise to take the sentence back to the group for a few repetitions followed by another repetition by the student who made the error.

After the class has grasped the meaning of the dialogue, worked through it line by line, cumulatively, until the students have committed the entire dialogue to memory, each student sees to it that he himself can say it fluently and without hesitation. Not more than ten minutes daily should be devoted to committing a dialogue to memory. This type of activity becomes monotonous if carried on too long and learning will cease. As the lines are mastered, the structures they contain are practiced through pattern drills of various kinds. See Chapter V.

When the dialogue has been well learned it should be dramatized, if possible with variations, with all members of the class getting a chance to participate. Rephrasing and review of previous dialogues and combining them with the new dialogue, developing questions and answers, utterances and responses, skits and narratives, supply valuable practice in the manipulation of the structures and vocabulary learned. For the student it is a challenging game to create new situations or episodes within the limits of the structures and vocabulary learned.

The purpose of the dialogue, then, is to give the students a springboard for practice on the memorized structures. When the dialogue and its attendant drills are completed by the student and overlearned through innumerable repetitions and variations, the structures learned will signal meaning to him as he is listening and he will manipulate the structures readily to express his own ideas.

Reading

There are valid reasons for introducing reading after the listening and speaking skills. Since language is essentially speech, and speech is basically communication through the medium of sound the major portion of the time in the elementary level of language learning is spent on mastering the sound system and the intonation of the language. Thus a solid foundation in the aural and oral skills is established. The student faces a difficult kind of learning when the printed symbols of a foreign language are introduced to him, especially when the printed symbols are the Roman alphabet with which he automatically associates English sounds. To the native speaker of English what is said and what is written are the same thing; he goes from sound to written symbol and vice-versa hundreds of times daily. These to him are the only possible responses. As a result, the student trying to learn the printed symbols of the new language discovers that his native habits interfere constantly.

Interference

When the student starts to read in a language like Spanish, French, and German, he learns to associate the foreign language sounds, still quite new to him, with the familiar written symbols of the Roman alphabet. The student will have a strong tendency to let his English sound-written symbol habits prevail and the careful training he has had in the sound system of the modern language will be wasted if the teacher is not careful in minimizing this interference. This problem should be analyzed for the students and they should be made to realize how important it is to keep their hard won speaking habits intact. At all language learning levels the teacher should *always* insist on the same high standards of pronunciation and intonation when the student reads, as well as when he converses. This becomes *particularly important* in the advanced levels of language learning.

In the audio-lingual approach the student does not read on his own for some time. Interference will be too great and he will quickly revert to his familiar native language habits. In the early stages reading is always oral and based on material previously learned audio-lingually. He does not read silently until he has a good command of the relationship between sound and graphic symbols and until he has heard the material read aloud by the teacher or from a tape.

Spelling

It is wise to spell in the modern language. Perhaps the first words to be spelled could be the students' names, since these are already familiar to them by

sound and in many cases by written symbols. The teacher should *learn to say*: "This is the way *this* sound is written," which is quite different from the way they have been taught!

As in the teaching of any skill, the teacher begins with small steps; in this case small units of sound-letter correspondences *in words and phrases*, not individual sounds. After mastery has been achieved, the student progresses to the longer, more complex clauses, sentences, and paragraphs. In some languages like German and Spanish there is a close relationship between the sound and the graphic symbol, whereas in languages like French and English there is a considerable difference. The fewer the symbols used for a given sound, the easier the task of establishing a sound-letter correspondence. In any case, the reading skill can be acquired only through much practice and through a variety of drill techniques all of which must be reinforced constantly.

Since the student at the beginning of his reading experiences reads only that which he has learned audio-lingually, the teacher must take precautions to insure that the student is not merely reciting from a cue. When the student starts to read material with which he is familiar, to make sure that the student recognizes the written symbols, the teacher rearranges the lines or phrases in many ways. Having students follow the printed page silently as the teacher reads aloud increases student confidence at the same time that the student is building sound-letter correspondences.

Expected Difficulties

It is usually possible to predict the sound-written correspondences which will present the greatest difficulty to the students. These are the sounds in the foreign language which are represented by the same Roman letters as English but are pronounced differently. Example: English co*ll*ege, Spanish ca*ll*e; English *w*e, German *w*ir; English *J*ack, French *j*ardin. The student usually fails to see the importance of diacritical marks in other languages because these signs are not used in English. The fact that diacritical marks are an integral part of the modern language needs to be firmly ingrained from the time the student sees his first printed word. Through a pairing of two words, one with and one without a diacritical mark — schon, schön; Miguel, Güernica; car, français — and eliciting an oral response, both visual and oral experiences are achieved.

Drills in reading, for that matter in all of the language skills, should be used only when the teacher finds that the class is having difficulty with certain items, in this case, with written symbols. A point worthy of reiteration here is that reading drills, as indicated in the previous section on listening and speaking, must not be too long, five or ten minutes per day is suggested. Short, spaced practice is most efficient.

Intermediate and Advanced Levels

At the intermediate and advanced levels of language learning, the listening and reading skills must be given priority. In the first level of language learning the vocabulary acquired is far short of the vocabulary needed by the student for him to read with ease. The student is familiar with the basic structures of the language through his audio-lingual mimicry, memorization, and variation drills. He ought to be able to size up noun and verb clusters and interpret the general sentence structure correctly for the purpose of comprehension. If the reading material is carefully graded and correlated with the audio-lingual materials he can also lean on the context. He knows enough about how people behave to help him with the interpretation of what he is reading.

Very few modern language students will become dictionary addicts in a foreigh language. We are not dictionary addicts in our native language. If 80 percent of a student's time must be spent in dictionary thumbing, he will by-pass us for more interesting fields. When new words occur in our native language we try to guess and usually we guess right. Guessing in our native language depends on our recognition of the part of speech function of words and the context. And it takes time, even in our native language, to sharpen up the meaning of the new word.

Since it is important to help the student increase his vocabulary, the teacher must see to it that the new words occur in familiar context to help the student learn how to infer or to "guess sensibly." For example, suppose we have the sentence:

> The axe resounded against the tree trunks as little by little the *mangroves* weakened under the *incessant* (continuous) blows.

The student does not know what *mangroves* are. The word fits in the noun slot and is plural (-s). From the context it sounds like some kind of tree. The picture of a mangrove in its native habitat can be of great help. Although the word *incessant* is unfamiliar to the student, the synonym clears up the word immediately. Encountering the word *mangroves* enough times will finally clarify its meaning and it will become a part of the student's passive and perhaps even his active vocabulary.

It is through this "twilight zone" that the teacher must guide the students and train them to guess sensibly or infer. In the first level the students probably have acquired only 400 to 1,000 words and some of these perhaps they are not too sure of. Nor have they been conditioned enough to work with grammatical clues. These clues must be drilled through the use of key questions about the particular structure and its meaning. If students do not learn to do this at the intermediate level, the critical stage in language learning, they will soon lose interest and give up. The teacher must also be on the alert constantly for the appearance of cultural differences occurring in the reading materials. It will be necessary to explain certain elements of culture which are unknown to the non-native speaker. Intelligent guessing about meaning may be impossible without this added help.

In the intermediate stage of language learning the teacher also prepares the students for the new vocabulary which will occur in a reading selection. He uses the new words and phrases in basic sentences. He paraphrases in the foreign language; sometimes English glossing is necessary. He uses many visual devices he has at his command. When the student arrives at the actual reading of the story or narrative, he will be able to read with ease and at the most not have to look up more than one word in 60 running words of prose. An idiom such as "he burns me up" which does not have the meaning a knowledge of the individual words would lead one to expect, should be paraphrased in the foreign language whenever possible.

Translation

If reading is tested by asking for translation, the student will revert to the dictionary habit and memorize long lists of foreign language — English word lists. He will not transfer his English reading habits of successful guessing or

inference which are necessary if he is ever to enjoy his reading experience in the foreign language. The teacher must become familiar with the more productive techniques of testing for reading. Studying carefully the new techniques used in the *Cooperative Language Tests* and the new *Modern Language Tests* developed by Educational Testing Services will give the teacher many new leads about the techniques he can use for testing comprehension without having to resort to translation. The chapter on Evaluation can also give him much help.

At the elementary level of language learning, reading is used primarily to reinforce and repeat what was learned aurally and orally. At the intermediate level the materials used for reading should contain as much realistic conversational material as possible to be sure that the audio-lingual skills will remain at peak performance as the emphasis swings over to the listening and reading skills. It is at the advanced levels that the teacher takes care of the *individual differences* within a class by having a wide variety of interesting reading materials, challenging to individual students, and containing worthwhile information which the student can discuss with his classmates. It is now that the students learn to read by reading. The investment in the audio-lingual foundation returns dividends with better reading speed and greater insight rather than a laborious deciphering of words. The student should be made to realize that much valuable information for his liberal education is available through the reading of materials in other languages.

Writing

The teacher at the elementary level in a foreign language will think of writing only as a means of reinforcing the audio-lingual and reading skills. It is not until the more advanced stages of language learning that writing can be considered in its own right. It will naturally be the least developed of the four skills.

The student must have firm control of the way the sounds are represented graphically if he wishes to become an effective reader and writer of the foreign language. To establish sound-letter correspondences copying dialogues and exercises and frequent dictation of *already familiar* material are indispensable writing exercises at the elementary level. The student progresses from this stage of *copying* to a limited free response exercise in which he completes a sentence, writes a sentence which is carefully controlled, makes changes such as those involving tense, person, and number. The writing of a good sentence is the focal point of level one. The student does not *create* language. Anything he writes is based on something he has learned aurally, orally, and in reading, and when he reproduces the language thus learned the exercise or task is carefully controlled. These writing exercises which involve the grammatical manipulation of sentences should be basic to both the elementary and intermediate levels.

The writing of a good paragraph is the aim of the intermediate level of language learning. Both at the intermediate and advanced levels, the student still needs models and controls so that he does not produce language not in accord with good usage in the foreign culture. There is a need for much directed writing where a student is told what to include. Questions and answers based on the oral work and on the reading, written grammar exercises — not the filling in of blanks! — now become a part of the study and homework tasks. Any writing exercise should be corrected and returned immediately so that the student will receive the same benefits from his written work that he does from his oral drills and exercises. Since the correcting of written work is an arduous task the teacher should be reasonable in assigning written lessons. Most important, assignments should justify themselves in terms of the resulting student learning. They must not be busy work.

Types of writing with which students and the teacher should be working at the intermediate and advanced levels are short narratives, descriptions of persons, places, events, expository writing, dialogues, and taking of notes on something the student has read or listened to, letters and diaries. At the advanced level the student also moves on to conscious imitation of the style of good contemporary writers in the foreign culture. Some students will even be able to develop a style of their own, but they will be few. This is a difficult task in one's own native language. The teacher can also, at the advanced levels of language learning, introduce the students to the difficult skill of translation and the few students who will be able to do this with superior prowess should have the opportunity of having their work appear in the school literary magazines or newspaper regardless of whether it is from foreign language to English or vice versa.

Culture

Culture consists of the entire behavior pattern and material achievements produced and shared by members of a community. The *language* spoken by that community is the core of the culture and reflects that culture. It is the key which makes possible the learning and sharing of that culture. Language and culture must be taught in the classroom. Unless students understand the cultural context in which statements are made, they can easily miss the full implication of the statements and at times completely misunderstand what is meant. It is realistic, therefore, for students to learn a language within situations and context which reflect the culture.

Communities which differ in their ways of doing things will find those differences reflected in their speech. Eskimo has a rich vocabulary for different kinds of snow; English only a few words. One can easily infer that snow has a real cultural significance to the Eskimo. American forms of address are quite simple: "you" and "Mr., Mrs., Miss" for practically everybody. Such speech habits reflect a society in which social classes are fluid. In many other countries there are different ways of addressing a person older or more powerful than oneself, or younger or less powerful than oneself. Such differences reflect an elaborately structured system of social differences. Not being aware of these differences can often create barriers difficult for the "foreigner" to penetrate. Thus it is necessary to give special emphasis to the patterns of the culture which clash with the patterns of our own culture.

Elementary language should be combined with the learning of culture in the anthropological sense, not with "culture" as we understand it in the great artistic and literary achievements of a civilization. A genuine understanding of the great literary works of a nation, their plots, characters, themes, depends a great deal on the learner's grasp of the every day cultural behavior of that nation's people. The small talk and the common everyday situations are the backbone of an understanding of a nation's literary achievements. Teachers should use literary selections, especially poetry, judiciously, in the

elementary and intermediate levels of language learning. When used they should give us a real understanding of the contemporary culture. Only after a modern language has been learned well can the style and characteristics of a particular piece of literature be thoroughly appreciated.

The teacher should present cultural material every day, either directly or vicariously, by transforming the language classroom into a "cultural island" with all the realia and visual aids which can assist the teacher in immersing the students in the foreign culture, by building basic cultural concepts into the materials and situations chosen. On the first day in the classroom the first contact with a foreign culture can occur by giving children names characteristic of the foreign culture and by using the correct forms of address.

There are extensive lists of cultural patterns which should be taught to students.[3] The teacher should adapt these patterns as time and circumstance permit. The following are only a few of the many cultural items students should know:

1) the everyday social amenities
2) the importance of and the manner in which the speakers of the language handle expletives and particles — "*Why*, that's a lovely dress!" or "It's *just* beautiful."
3) folklore and fables
4) childhood literature
5) discipline
6) festivals and holidays
7) games
8) music
9) friends and friendship
10) radio, TV, films
11) hobbies
12) attitudes towards school and learning
13) family life
14) travel and recreation
15) rural life versus urban life
16) heroes
17) what is humorous
18) rules of courtship
19) careers

Students are interested in these things and a knowledge of them deepens their interest and invariably improves their performance in the language.

The *necessary* task in teaching the culture of a language is to see that students are aware of language traps when dealing with another language community and are ready to suspect them when communication starts to break down. The verbal symbol itself does not tell us what the behavior should be but it alerts us to observe both the verbal and the non-verbal behavior of the individuals of that culture in their relationships to each other. Finally, through a knowledge and understanding of the foreign culture the student's attitudes will broaden and frequently a significant result is a deeper appreciation and a greater insight into the melting pot of his own culture.

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[3] Brooks, Nelson. Language and Language Learning. Harcourt, 1960 pp. 79–93. Linton, Ralph. The Science of Man in the World Crisis. Columbia, 1945 p. 124.

Grammatical Structures

In the audio-lingual approach students have been learning functional grammar from the very first day in the foreign language classroom. That means that grammatical structures are taught in context. As someone once said: "I ate" is more likely to be followed by "a piece of pie," than by "you ate," "he ate," "we ate," for example. The sentences selected for pattern drills in a language lesson embody the basic grammatical patterns of the foreign language. The primary job of the elementary and intermediate levels in language learning is to habituate these patterns in the student's oral-aural and visual repertoires.

After the patterns have been well learned through the use of innumerable examples and drills, the students, with the help and guidance of the teacher, analyze, discriminate, and make generalizations about the language structures. They then compare their statements about the language structures with the statements in the textbook.

In teaching the patterns of a language certain "handles," like noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, infinitive, can be helpful when generalizations about the language are being made. The use of grammatical terminology like "the subjunctive of indirect discourse" however is usually an obstacle to the language learner and thoroughly confuses him. Within a school or school system, the modern language teachers together with the English teachers, should agree to use a standard set of grammar terms thereby avoiding needless confusion for the students and useless bickering among the teachers. The terminology not needed in the learning of English but useful and necessary in the foreign language can be taught by the foreign language teacher.

In presenting the grammar of the foreign language to the students the teacher must constantly remember that a *modern language is to be learned as a tool for communication*, and not as a series of syntactical items and long lists of paradigms.

Drills and Exercises

Learning another language would be easy if there were a one-to-one correspondence among languages. However, languages are structured differently, they portray things differently. These differences cause the language learner the most difficulty. As a result, any construction in the modern language which clashes with its counterpart in English must be made the object of a special drill. Hence, drill or pattern practice is the nucleus of functional language teaching.

Almost all drills used in the language class can be classified as repetition, substitution, transformation drills or a combination of the last two. In a substitution drill the primary purpose is *to habituate* a particular language pattern. After the original pattern has been learned other vocabulary items replace the items in the original example. The substituted vocabulary does not change the structure of the pattern which we want habituated in the language learner. Thus, when vocabulary substitution has been completed, the student ends up with a *different lexical* meaning from the original example, but the pattern, which has *its own structural meaning* determined by the relationships of function words, endings and sentence arrangement remains constant.

The transformation drill uses several examples of a *given pattern* and by a specific manipulation changes each of these examples into a new pattern

such as changing a statement into a question or changing a statement to the negative.

All other types of pattern practice are essentially substitution and transformation drills:

1) the expansion drill enlarges a frame by adding a new element
2) the contraction drill shortens an utterance
3) the more involved replacement drill involves changing one frame to another, such as is found in replacing nouns with pronouns, in substituting subjects thereby requiring a change in verb form
4) the graduated replacement drill changes one element of a frame and gradually introduces other substitution and transformation operations
5) restatement or directed response drills, complicated forms of transformations, require several simultaneous operations
6) integration drills combine two utterances or statements
7) translation drills focus on target language utterances deviating considerably from those in the native language. See Chapter V for detailed descriptions and examples of drills

Pattern drills, especially transformation drills, start out with a change of *only one item at a time* before the student moves to the more complex drills involving two or more changes. Thus automatic responses resulting from pattern drills are gradually replaced by free responses where students begin to make choices.

It is not unusual to hear students complaining about how bored they get from incessant drill sessions. A clever teacher will use humor in her pattern drills or have little interludes which include a line of a song, a riddle, or a rhyme between drills. In the final analysis, however, it must be made clear to the student that it is this drilling which will assure him the automatic response he ultimately wants in acquiring the foreign language. For many students this is the only way to learn to manipulate the language skills which they would not be able to do if they had to construct sentences and utterances by the purely analytical approach. The old fashioned translation exercise usually demanded many different patterns and much guessing. Responses never became automatic. Exercises in which blanks were left for the student to fill in did not force students to think of the complete patterns. After all, the student does not perform by endings alone!

To do nothing but drills is like doing nothing but practicing scales and arpeggios without being given a chance to perform a musical composition at a concert. The drill is only a means to an end. The ability to use the language freely by answering questions, posing questions, making statements, engaging in conversation, or giving a talk on a specific subject — these are the test of whether or not the pattern drills and practice exercises have done the job.

Importance of the Language Laboratory

The foreign language laboratory is discussed in Chapter VII. However, a few words need to be said here with regard to the important role the language laboratory plays in the audio-lingual approach to language learning. The laboratory is needed 1) to establish language habits and 2) to reinforce and correct immediately the responses the students make. In the classroom only one student can recite at a time. Although choral response includes more than one student, such group performance lessens the individual student's attention and motivation. The reward for the correct response is directed to the group thus becoming less effective for the individual student. In a choral response there is also the danger of having a few leaders and many followers causing the responses to become mere repetition instead of independent responses to a cue. This does not belittle the importance of choral response in the classroom work but it points up the need for the laboratory.

A laboratory allows a large number of students to work at the same time and independently of each other. Each individual is rewarded immediately by the correct answer given on the tape. This opportunity for immediate correction is a distinct advantage over correction which occurs hours after the student has made the mistake in his homework or the type of correction which occurs in front of his peers in the classroom.

The laboratory period is considered to be the practice session or the homework session. Practice and homework sessions should fix and habituate the correct responses. At the elementary level this is really the primary function of homework. The new language materials include practice records, practice tapes for the student to take home if time and scheduling do not permit after school or study hall type laboratory sessions.

The laboratory is the best place for the stimulus-response part of language learning where the student manipulates language patterns in substitution and transformation drills. The classroom should be reserved for explanation and the use of the drilled speech patterns in meaningful context and free responses. In comparing two areas of skills learning we have a situation something like the following:

	Modern Language	Football
Practice	Laboratory	Practice Field
Analysis, (Generalization)	Classroom	Classroom
Performance	Natives in a Live Situation	Football Stadium

There are occasions when patterns are practiced in the classroom. This usually occurs as a demonstration to show how it is to be done in the laboratory and what the instructor is driving at with the particular drill. The laboratory is also the perfect place for working on the extension of the students' listening skills, for learning of a song, a game, for listening to radio commercials, for the recording of student talks and other suitable activities which liven up the learning of the language. Certainly the language laboratory plays a very important part in the more advanced levels of language learning when students should have the opportunity of listening to modern literature, news reviews, and the like. No matter what, the teacher must always consider the classroom and the laboratory as complementary to each other, the one supporting the other but never duplicating.

Programed learning with its concept of habit formation, immediate confirmation of correct response, and minimal step learning makes maximum use of the laboratory which in this case takes on a private tutorial function. For highly motivated adults and students the laboratory with its tutorial machine then becomes the instructor and students advance and acquire the linguistic patterns at their own speed with little supervision from the regular teacher.

Vocabulary

Deciding just what vocabulary should be taught and how much of that vo-

cabulary to teach at each level are two questions which plague every language teacher.

The teacher must know that the student's *passive vocabulary*, the vocabulary he needs *to recognize* when listening to the spoken language and reading it, must be much more extensive, a ratio of 9 to 1 in our native language, than his active vocabulary, the words he needs *to recall* in speaking and writing the language.

The teacher must also differentiate between

1) *function words*, words signifying relationships and grammatical meanings such as prepositions, conjunctions, and replacement words such as pronouns, which really operate as a part of the structure of the language

2) *content words*, nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs which bear the burden of the lexical meaning of an utterance.

Function words are limited in number and are an intricate part of a sentence. They must be taught as part of the pattern or structure if the student is ever to command an active and correct use of them. Their frequency of occurrence is so great that they almost teach themselves.

Content words are another matter. When the student wants to say something about a particular thing, he needs to know the name of that thing whether it is on a frequency list or not. Most frequency lists are based on nineteenth century literary words and are of little value for today's language objectives. Research shows that after the first 750 to 1,000 words, including the function words there is actually no validity at all in the rankings. As far as novels, stories, and plays go, the student will find as many new words on page 500 as he does on page 25. Forty percent of the words on any page are among the most common words. Most are function words. We have no research to show us how many pages a student must read before the number of new words on a given page comes down to a level which permits reading without real vocabulary problems.

The vocabulary included in a language course should contain those words judged necessary to express essential concepts and those which in turn can be used to express several concepts. At the beginning, synonyms should be avoided as well as vocabulary which can be adequately expressed by other vocabulary items. At the elementary and intermediate levels this becomes a matter of efficiency and economy so that the student can concentrate on the structural meaning of the language. The difficulty with learning content words is that they are determined by what the speaker needs to say at a given moment in a certain environment. Initial vocabulary should also be based on the concepts or situations most common and universal in everyday speech. The lists determined by the French government, the Spanish frequency list developed in Puerto Rico, the German list now in the process of development under the direction of Dr. Alan Pfeffer of Pittsburgh University represent the spoken language. They represent the essential function and content words which can be used in easy and natural communication.

The teacher should never attempt to teach vocabulary, even at the more advanced levels, as a discreet number of items in a list paired with their "so-called" English equivalents. The smallest unit of communication is an utterance involving speaker, listener, and situation. Vocabulary, therefore, is best learned through the dialogue and pattern practice. The learning of itemized vocabulary lists can lead to ridiculous errors in choosing vocabulary for an utterance. Neither should a vocabulary item be tested without putting it into the context of an utterance.

It is true that the dictionary will have to be used when reading but a clue to the meaning is provided by the context of the passage in which the vocabulary item occurs. However, when a student has to consult a dictionary for the purpose of formulating his own utterances or writing a composition at the more advanced stages of language learning, he should be trained to pay special attention to the sample sentences provided by the dictionary. If a dictionary does not provide examples of the usage of a word, it is less than useless in composition and translation work.

Vocabulary can be built best by extensive listening and reading. The language field is in need of thousands of pages of graduated listening and reading materials based on the new frequency lists and on the interests of young people.

In helping students expand vocabulary, pictorial aids are of great help in getting directly from the concept to the word. Memorizing poems, jingles, proverbs, mottoes, songs, plays and skits also aid in building vocabulary for recall. Using games such as "quiz master," "traffic signals," "movie actors," "sports heroes," "great books," "authors," and games dealing with the geography and history of the country now published in the various countries, are of great help. Teaching young people how to infer the meaning of a word from the context through cognates and partial cognates and through word families, is a must.

Sometimes, for the sake of economy and less confusion, it is permissible to give the meaning of a vocabulary item in English. However, the definition in the foreign language, the use of a synonym or antonym have the advantage of allowing teacher and class to stay within the foreign language, although definitions are not always clear and synonyms and antonyms never define with 100 percent precision.

Function words must be tied to structure and are best learned through the habit forming drills and exercises. Content words are also learned through their incorporation in the drills. But primarily they must be integrated with situations. Thus, perhaps most appropriate in vocabulary building is the organization of content vocabulary according to situations or units of experience such as are found in the more recent modern language materials.

Lesson Organization

A lesson consisting of a number of rules of grammar, followed by a series of vocabulary items and translation exercises in which the student is expected to puzzle out entirely on his own the application of the grammar rules to the vocabulary items, a lesson which tries to give complete coverage to a single point of grammar including all of the exceptions, runs counter to psycholinguistic teaching principles. What seems like a logical organization of language subject matter to the teacher is not necessarily the one suitable for attaining *competency* in the use of the language skills. Learning a language means establishing new behavior patterns. Exceptions and complicated patterns should not be brought into a language lesson until basic patterns have been firmly established.

There are several approaches to lesson organization. The first is to organize the lesson or lessons around basic persistent life experiences such as: at breakfast, going to the movie, Christmas, getting up in the morning, going to school, watching the football game, and so forth. This approach assumes careful planning on the part of the teacher or textbook writer. Such units are palatable, hold the interest of youngsters and adolescents, and contain a number of useful ex-

pressions which form the small talk in every life. However, the teacher must have two primary concerns in this type of lesson organization:

1) The new structures and new vocabulary items in the unit must be singled out for specific drill

2) The old structures and old vocabulary items, already drilled and learned, must be re-entered to assure good continuity of learning.

Another approach emphasizes primarily the fact that language learning is habit formation and the basic unit of instruction is the drill or practice exercise. These drills are considered the links in a chain, each drill taking up only one difficulty at a time and overlearned before progressing to the next drill. To this continuum are added exercises for review, examples of connected speech, stories, expository narrative, all based on the interests and needs of the particular age level with which the teacher is working.

The two outlines below give only the *basic content* of a language lesson. The teachers' ingenuity and creativity may bring in other language activities such as a song, a game, and so forth, but he must always see to it that the basic ingredients are there to move the language competency of the learner forward. When a teacher decides what basic materials he wants to use in his language classes, he should be sure that the unit or lesson in the materials contains these basic steps:

Lesson Organization Type I

A. Dialogue or narrative incorporating new patterns to be taught

B. Drills and exercises based on the new patterns to be overlearned

C. Question-answer exercises based on the dialogue or narrative which incorporate in the answers the new patterns learned in A

D. A number of dialogues and narratives in new situations or frames of reference incorporating the old and new patterns to extend primarily the students' listening and reading skills

Lesson Organization Type II

A. Eight or more drills and exercises based on the new patterns to be overlearned

B. Dialogue or narrative in which the eight new patterns learned in the drills are used in meaningful context

C. Question-answer and other exercises based on the dialogue or narrative and which incorporate in the answers the new patterns learned in A

Orientation

The first day or two of a language class should orient the students to what language is and to the objectives of a language course. This is especially true for the beginning class at any level — grade school, junior or senior high school, college, or adult evening class. The teacher should establish attitudes, stimulate motivation, and guide the language learner in how to go about learning a second language. Such orientation is also of immeasurable value for parents.

In many schools the first P.T.A. meeting is devoted to acquainting parents with activities going on in the classroom as they move through their child's schedule. Such class periods last from 15 to 20 minutes. This gives the language teacher an opportunity to enlighten parents on the new approach and developments in language teaching and to enlist parent cooperation in developing the right atmosphere and conditions for language learning in the home and the community.

The students should be encouraged to formulate their own thinking about the nature of language and how it is used, about the need to communicate with our world neighbors in their own languages, about the benefits of being able to use the language as a tool for getting at more knowledge or for helping one in one's chosen vocation.

Note: A series of five 35-minute reels: I. *The Nature of Language and How It Is Learned,* II. *The Sounds of Language,* III. *The Organization of Language,* IV. *Words and Their Meanings,* V. *Modern Techniques in Language Teaching* developed in 1960 and 1962 under the auspices of Teaching Film Custodians, Modern Language Association of America and the Center for Applied Linguistics should be used by the modern language teacher during the orientation period. A teacher's manual accompanies the series. Such a "short course" will pay dividends. The films can be obtained from the Audio Visual Service Bureau, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis 14, Minnesota.

The teacher should compare language study with music or a sport, such as baseball. Like these activities, language learning is a skill, and like the skill required of a good ball player or a good musician, it calls for a tremendous amount of practice. The fluent speaker of a foreign language, the fine ball player or musician must then transfer these practiced skills over to real life situations — the ball game, the concert, communication with native speakers. The language learner, like the athlete and the musician, can enjoy using his skill even as he progresses through the various stages of learning the skills.

Helps for successful language study should be discussed and demonstrated in classroom and laboratory to dispel the erroneous preconceived notions about language learning so many students have. If this step is carried out, the teacher will not have to struggle with the stubborn adherence to traditional grammar-translation methods by some students who are influenced by parents trained in the old techniques. A bulletin on study habits should be put in the hands of each language learner at the very beginning of his language career and should be referred to constantly until good learning habits have been established. See Appendix B.

If the language teacher is fortunate enough to teach in a school where the language arts or English classes are taught by teachers using the new linguistic materials developed under PROJECT ENGLISH at the University of Minnesota, correlating the work of the English and modern language classes will save much valuable time for the language teacher. Not only will it help with the orientation period itself, but through constant cooperation, the modern language teacher will be able to build on the concepts and terminology used in the language arts classrooms, thereby allowing him to devote his time in the foreign language classroom to using the modern language itself with the students. Such correlation is far better than complaining about the English teacher not teaching conventional grammar. New concepts in the linguistic field rule out such criticism since each language has its own unique structure and slices its concepts and meanings according to its own cultural interpretation of the world.

Formalizing the rules according to which the language class will be conducted and the language learned saves the teacher many headaches and

wasteful minutes later in convincing students why certain procedures are insisted upon in classroom and laboratory.

Using English in the Classroom

The use of English in the classroom can be defended only on the basis of its being an economy procedure to free class time for more practice in the foreign language. It is advisable to limit the use of English as much as possible in the early levels of foreign language learning. At the more advanced levels the foreign language should be used almost exclusively. English should never be used *by the learner*. Switching from one language to the other in practice and performance cannot be justified.

A brief explanation in English by the teacher may save time for more concentrated learning, and avoid confusion and disorganization. In the early stages of language learning, directions for tests and examinations, for homework, for drills on tapes should be given in English so that the learner knows exactly what he is expected to do.

The last few or first few minutes of class time can be conducted in English to allow for questions and explanations. English can be used in the initial presentation of a dialogue or narrative so that the learner has an idea of what it is that he is learning. Occasionally English may be used *sotto voce* for quick lexical clarification to prevent any waste of time. English can be used in describing a situation in which the students are to perform with free responses.

> A friend comes to you and asks for a few sheets of paper. He says he will return it as soon as possible. You tell him he will find ink and paper in your brother's room. He says he doesn't know your brother. You tell him you are sure he won't mind. He thanks you and says he also needs a pen. You give him one and he thanks you again.

At the more advanced stages these descriptions can be given in the foreign language.

The time when English should be permitted in the classroom as an essential part of the instructional procedure is when difficulties revolve around contrasts between the English and foreign language sounds and structures. Using English patterns and comparing them with the foreign language patterns focuses attention on the differences and drives them home to the learner. See Chapter V. When English is used in this manner, it should be *oral only*. Using English as the oral stimulus minimizes the danger of word for word translation. Once the comparison between English and foreign language sound or structure patterns has been made, English should be cut out or used only as a cue. *Oral English* allows us to make an *accurate comparison*. Stress on various parts of an English sentence may mean a difference in structuring the foreign language utterance.

English	French	German	Spanish
I don't like it.	Je ne l'aime pas.	Es gefallt mir nicht.	No me gusta.
I don't like it.	*Moi*, je me l'aime pas.	*Mir* gefallt es nicht.	*A mi* no me

Thus the only positive advantage of using English lies in showing the difference between a structure in English and in the foreign language. Using English in the classroom never takes the place of meaningful practice in the foreign language.

Visual Aids

It is a well known fact that a picture is far more powerful as a learning aid than the printed word. This holds true as well in the learning of a foreign language. However, pictorial aids must be used judiciously and not overdone. Maps, wall charts, posters, travel folders, pictures, cartoons, stamps, coins, slides, filmstrips, films, magazines and newspapers, comic strips, calendars, games, models of houses, furnishings, costumes, dolls, TV — all help in associating object or action directly with the foreign language word or concept.

In the audio-lingual approach many of these aids expedite the work of the teacher considerably. We shall consider just a few of the possibilities to give the language teacher an idea of what can be done with them.

1. There is the usual picture or flashcard used primarily for cuing vocabulary items or pattern drills.

2. Another kind of picture shows a scene or an action. There are beautiful wall pictures and filmstrips on the market which incorporate scenes typical of the way of life in the foreign culture. These pictures can expedite the learning of verbs and help develop a topical vocabulary. These pictures are valuable also in presenting vocabulary and structures already learned, or to be learned, in meaningful situations and can be of great help in testing and reviewing.

3. There are pictorial aids which represent a sentence or a structure. Linguistically these are of considerable value. They can convey the exact meaning of a sentence such as: "Der Mann trinkt eine Tasse Kaffee"; "El hombre toma una taza de café"; "L'homme boit une tasse de café"; by portraying a man drinking a cup of coffee. There are language materials on the market which skillfully use stick figures for this purpose. An extension of this type of pictorial aid combines the individual structure with a single picture. The aid does not convey the exact meaning of the structure, only reinforces it and becomes the cue for recalling that particular structure.

4. Pictorial aids can serve to teach a lexical concept or a language pattern which is difficult to learn because of the interference coming from English speech habits. For example, pictorial aids can uniquely illustrate the difference between "Ihm ist warm," and "Das Brot ist noch warm." Line graphs which illustrate the meaning of different tenses, such as the imperfect and preterit tenses in Spanish and French, or the aspects of the Russian verb can be of considerable help.

5. A pictorial aid which blocks sentence patterns can help students better develop their powers of discrimination and generalization at the more advanced stages of language learning. Examples of the same pattern are presented to the student in such a manner that the elements which fulfill identical functions in the pattern are lined up vertically and put into the same *slot* in the structural frame. Some recent language materials for the classroom do this effectively in their practice sections, especially in replacement drills, and their sections on generalizations about patterns. These methods are more effective than a grammatical explanation in helping the student see the similarities and differences between patterns and grammatical word classes.

6. There are pictorial charts which are used to illustrate a grammatical cate-

gory such as a chart which shows various situations illustrating the uses of the verb *estar*, or the teacher can construct a chart illustrating the important verbs which take direct objects in German, whereas the English counterparts take a prepositional object. Such a chart might show a picture of a child looking for his toy — "Das Kind sucht sein Spielzeug."

Such pictorial charts mentioned above have probably the most immediate application to linguistic teaching, for it is this type of chart that can be used most effectively in the basic drill techniques of substitution and transformation. A chart or series of pictures showing several objects or persons can provide the nouns to be substituted in a pattern. The teacher provides the pattern to be drilled, and merely by pointing to different pictures he elicits responses providing the substitution items.

Even more useful for pattern drills is the chart which is composed of a series of action pictures. The student learns the basic sentence which describes each action taking place on the chart. Once each sentence has been learned and associated with the picture, the latter becomes the cue for triggering student responses. For example, the basic sentences may be transformed into different tenses. By pointing to the picture and using a word like *gestern, mãnana, hier*, the teacher drills the class to respond with the correct tense. The teacher may ask the class or individual students to substitute different subjects in the actions of the chart. The basic sentences may be negative or transformed into questions; nouns can be replaced by pronouns; questions may be asked about the subjects, the objects, or the actions.

Methodologically, pictorial aids have immense value in foreign language learning. There are film courses today which combine successfully the showing of the cultural aspects of the country with the teaching of the linguistic patterns expressing this culture. *Je parle français. Parlons français, La Familia Fernández.*

Individual Differences

The strictly limited and highly structured elementary level in audio-lingual instruction does not allow for much differentiation among students. The limitation on vocabulary, the multitudinous drills and practice exercises tend toward conformity rather than differentiation. But students have their own individual rates of learning that will show up at the later levels in an ever increasing spread in achievement. Personality traits can cause differences in learning. A naturally quiet person, one who does not like to perform before peers, will not do as well in oral work as the garrulous type, although fundamentally the former may command the language as well, if not better than, the latter. Some students will do extremely well in the listening and/or reading skills. It is up to the teacher to give the students every opportunity to go as fast as they can in those skills they perform well, without altogether neglecting the skills they need practice in. A good teacher is one who fosters these individual differences by bringing along the slow learner and speeding up those who seem to have no limit to their learning capacities. His classroom will look like a miniature library of books and tapes to take care of the special and individual needs of his students.

At the beginning of the intermediate level and even the advanced level some students within the class will have come from another school using different materials and accustomed to procedures quite different from those used in the audio-lingual approach. Some will have little aural-oral competence and functional control of the structures. Review tapes or records practiced in an extra hour or special study period assignment can go a long way toward helping these students.

At these levels there should always be an extensive review the first few weeks of the new academic year. Any good textbook should have in the first few lessons built in reviews of the materials learned at the previous levels. The language laboratory sessions can play an important role for reviewing previous materials in the first month back at school. It may be well to at least review the dialogues, or go through some of the more challenging drills of the previous year.

Homework

Homework should not be thought of as something to give students to keep them busy after school or in the evening. A home task should reinforce the new learning which goes on in classroom and laboratory. The teacher should attempt to tie in any experiences with the foreign language which can occur outside the classroom after school hours. To do this the teacher must know the community resources which he can use; he should be alert to commercial TV programs and educational TV language programs offered to the public in the evenings. These activities are often a source of enrichment and reinforcement.

Assignments should be flexible enough to provide for individual differences, especially at the intermediate and advanced levels. Directions should be clear and definite and assignments should be within the capacities of the students to do within a reasonable period of time. On the average, a home task should never exceed a thirty-five minute limit. Students do take other subjects to which some time must be devoted after school. Students should also be encouraged to do their foreign language homework as the last study activity of the day, and they should be encouraged to review for ten minutes or so in the morning.

At first, home work assignments should be given in English, but later they should be given in the foreign language. It is well for the teacher to go through the assignment or give detailed instructions with a few examples. Homework should always be checked when it is due. If reading materials are assigned at the later stages of foreign language learning, the teacher should have check sheets or work sheets with true-false, multiple choice items, or questions to be answered, to be sure the students have done the assignment and comprehended the important items correctly. This is extremely important at the more advanced levels when students are given extensive reading assignments.

Parents of students should be urged to have a tape recorder or a phonograph in the home. Oral exercises on tapes or discs are an indispensible adjunct to language learning. The new language materials have inexpensive sets of discs which the student can buy or borrow from the school to take home. Wherever possible, the language laboratory should be open before and after school and during lunch hour to give students the opportunity to do this type of oral homework. Some libraries have listening facilities which students can use.

In the first months of language work, homework should be confined only to those materials which have been thoroughly learned orally in the classroom and laboratory. Later the student can copy these materials to help him develop a discriminating eye. Written drills can be assigned which require changes in word order or in forms. Any assignment is a legitimate one provided it can be

done without danger of wrong learning, and provided it will make a real contribution to correct learning.

If students have no out-of-class access to tape recorders or phonographs, the first few weeks of the foreign language course should be given over to reading materials in English about the culture and the language. The foreign language teacher should correlate his work with that of the other teachers in the other disciplines. Students can read a translation of some of the literary works in an English class, or report on a scientist in the foreign culture for science class. The more foreign language is incorporated with the total learning situation in school, the better. The librarian and the language teacher should develop lists of reading materials in English — books, periodicals, reference works. This list can then be handed out immediately during the first class session. A section of a school library can be devoted to foreign language materials.

In the beginning of the year at the intermediate and advanced levels, review assignments make good homework material. Such assignments strengthen the already familiar patterns. Workbooks containing drills and exercises should play a major role in homework. At the later elementary level and the intermediate level short reading selections which rework the materials learned orally, followed by worksheet assignments, are beneficial. At the advanced level books and articles in magazines should be assigned for reports in class.

If the students have access to tape recorders and laboratories, the teacher can assign the students to listen to a recording by native speakers. Many Pen and Tape Pal activities can be home tasks. Sometimes a student wants to share with his peers the tape his tape pal has sent him. Activities such as preparing the letter, the tape, getting ready to report on what this friend in the foreign culture is doing, can be part of a homework situation and be discussed in class the next day.

These suggestions are given only to stimulate the teacher to think about other worthwhile home tasks which do not become a bore to the students and are in keeping with the new approach.

Chapter IV

COURSES OF STUDY

Introduction

Many types of foreign language programs, some of them experimental in nature, are developing in the schools. A school system faces the problem of choosing and working with a program appropriate to its local resources. In the state of Minnesota there is a growing trend to introduce a modern language at the elementary school level, grades 4-12, and at the junior high school levels, grades 7-12. Some schools are moving into the four-year sequence, grades 9-12 and many are just beginning to make a three-year course, grades 10-12, available to their students.

With this variety of sequences a serious problem of articulation exists, 1) between levels within a given sequence, 2) between sequences, and 3) in integrating different sequences at the more advanced levels. In an attempt to help alleviate these problems three courses of study are suggested: the first designed for grades 4 through 12 — sequence A, the second for grades 7 through 12 — sequence B, and the third for grades 9 through 12 with its modified form for grades 10 through 12 — sequence C. Sequence A, the nine year program is designed to begin in grade 4 because most materials presently available for elementary school programs are intended for a beginning at this grade level. Sequence A allows a student to obtain a real language proficiency based on an intuitive understanding of the culture. Such cultural understanding and linguistic proficiency can only be developed through long systematic exposure. Sequence A also allows a student the opportunity to begin a second modern language later in his secondary school career. Sequence B, grades 7-12, provides a student with a good foundation in a modern language. Sequence C, grades 9-12, and its modified form, grades 10-12, will give the student the necessary fundamental skills.

Suggested Sequences In Foreign Language Instruction

The chart below suggests the time required for each level of the sequences and a list of the desired goals for each sequence. These goals can be achieved under optimum conditions. If it is necessary for a school system to adjust time allotments, results will vary. Outcomes will be tempered, also, by the competence and enthusiasm of the teacher. All students will not achieve these goals to the same degree. Their competence will be determined partly by their interest, capabilities, and environment. The talented student with a competent teacher should be able to attain maximum performance and understanding.

It is important to clarify the meaning of "level." Level I is not necessarily identified with the elementary program. Level I can occur at any time in the learner's experience, whether he is a pre-school child beginning to learn the language or an adult. However, Level I in one sequence cannot be exactly equated with Level I in another sequence. We must always regard the maturity and individual interests of the learner; we also must consider whether or not he has had another foreign language. But we must always realize that if the learner has had no previous experience with the foreign language in question, he is on the primary level.

The learner arrives at the more advanced levels when he can communicate well enough to be understood by the native speaker. Experience in the past, however, has shown that many students have never reached this level. Therefore, teachers and administrators should consider seriously the advantage of Sequence A. The student in Sequence A will complete the elementary stages of language learning before he reaches the secondary school and will be able to acquire a proficiency which was never before possible. Another advantage of following Sequence A is that the student can start another language, for example, Sequence C , which he can learn more efficiently because he is already acquainted with the technique of language learning.

SEQUENCE A

The Nine-Year Program

LEVEL	*GRADE*	*TIME*
I	4, 5, 6	15-30 minutes a day 5 days a week
II	7, 8	½ hour daily 45-50 minutes, 3 days a week *
III	9	1 period 5 days a week
IV	10	1 period 5 days a week
V	11	1 period 5 days a week **
VI	12	1 period 5 days a week **

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
Week 1	ML	S	ML	S	ML
Week 2	S	ML	S	ML	S

ML — Modern Language S — Another Subject

After nine years in this uninterrupted sequence, and under optimum conditions, the student should be able to:

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* On the basis of a two-week block, some schools will alternate the modern language class with another subject:

** At the V and VI Levels schools can reduce the number of class hours and operate in the same manner as under Level II.

1) Communicate effectively on topics of general interest in his own and in the foreign culture.
2) Speak with accurate pronunciation and intonation.
3) Read easily and with understanding, magazines, newspapers, and books read by the average student of his age in the foreign culture.
4) Have a true cross-cultural insight through long-continued exposure to the foreign culture.
5) Be able to transpose with a feeling for correct interpretation from one language to the other, material within the scope of his knowledge and experience.
6) Progress into advanced work on syntax, composition, and mature literature on the basis of a sound basic knowledge of the foreign language and culture.

SEQUENCE B

The Six-Year-Program

LEVEL	*GRADE*	*TIME*
I	7, 8	1 period 4 or 5 days a week
II	9	1 period 5 days a week
III	10	1 period 5 days a week
IV	11	1 period 5 days a week
V	12	1 period 5 days a week *

Six years in this uninterrupted sequence should produce, under optimum conditions a student who can:

1) Communicate with ease in everyday situations
2) Speak with a pronunciation and intonation readily understandable by native speakers
3) Grasp directly the meaning of simple, non-technical prose
4) Understand cross-cultural differences
5) Transpose correctly from one language to another materials within the scope of his knowledge
6) Progress into advanced work in conversation, composition, syntax, and culture

SEQUENCE C $_1$

The Four-Year Program

LEVEL	*GRADE*	*TIME*
I	9	1 period 5 days a week
II	10	1 period 5 days a week
III	11	1 period 5 days a week
IV	12	1 period 5 days a week

The student who, under optimum conditions, has followed this four-year program should:

1) Understand and use fluently common expressions in the modern language
2) Speak with a pronunciation and intonation which can be understood by native speakers
3) Grasp directly the meaning of simple prose
4) Be aware of cross-cultural differences
5) Have fundamental skills necessary for a broader, deeper study of the language

SEQUENCE C $_2$

The Three-Year Program

LEVEL	*GRADE*	*TIME*
I	10	1 period 5 days a week
II	11	1 period 5 days a week
III	12	1 period 5 days a week

After the three-year sequence the student should:

1) Understand and use common expressions in the modern language
2) Have a command of the basic sound patterns of the modern language
3) Read graded textbook material with vocabulary help
4) Be aware of cross-cultural differences in limited areas
5) Be familiar with the basic structures of the modern language

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* See Sequence A, Note ** under Levels V and VI, above.

Sequence A
The Nine Year Program for Grades Four Through Twelve

A nine year program provides an early start in language study and the pupil has an opportunity to reach a state of proficiency in a foreign language. This plan also offers the pupil an opportunity to study more than one foreign language during his school years. Beginning his study early capitalizes on the ability of the young child to understand and imitate the oral phase of a language with less difficulty than the more mature learner. The study of a foreign language should be a cumulative and progressive experience which is an integral part of the child's study of language for communication. A long sequence provides the child with effective tools of communication — listening, speaking, reading, and writing. A continuous experience with the cultural aspects of a foreign country gained through language enables the pupil to mature with a more complete understanding of other peoples.

A continuous experience with a foreign language implies an uninterrupted study of the same language through all nine years. Unless provision is made to continue the study of the language at the junior and senior high school levels, the value of an elementary school program is doubtful.[4] The student who has progressed through language study in the elementary school must be placed in a junior high school program which would continue from where the children left off in the sixth grade. These children cannot be placed in a beginning seventh grade class.

The following sections discuss possible objectives, content, techniques, and materials which can be used in this program. The sequence has three main divisions: Grades 4, 5, 6; Grades 7, 8, 9, and Grades 10, 11, 12.

Level I — Sequence A
The Elementary School Child As A Language Learner

According to the famed neurologist, Wilder Penfield, if one were to select the ideal time for a child to begin to learn a foreign language, that time would be between the ages of four and ten. Penfield says that the young child has a remarkably flexible speech mechanism and a special capacity for learning language, an ability that decreases with the passage of years. Capacity for imitation is maximum between four and eight.

Between the ages of six and eight the normal child has formed his native speech habits completely. Rapid vocabulary acquisition in the native language begins at age six and is accelerated after age nine. Learning of vocabulary proceeds rapidly once the sound system and the grammar and spelling systems are mastered. These early learnings form fixed habits and accent and usage stubbornly resist change.

Learning his own language has a special urgency for the youngster of this age for it satisfies his unquenchable curiosity by unlocking secrets of life by providing him with a means of satisfying his wants. When second language learning provides the same gratification, it can be similarly motivated.

Should a second language be introduced in the early years, the learning can proceed parallel to but separate from the first language with no need for translation from one to the other. Ideally the second language will be taught by a method which makes it not so much a subject to be studied but the means to certain ends, a vehicle and a way of life just as the first language is.

General Principles

The elementary school foreign language program should be based on the demonstrated capacity of elementary school youngsters to mimic foreign language sounds with accuracy and grasp the structure of the language, almost intuitively. The instruction should aim for near-native pronunciation and intonation habits. To achieve these habits, pupils must have an excellent model. If the classroom teacher herself cannot provide that model, a peripatetic specialist, recordings, radio or television should bring native or near-native speech into the classroom.

Aural comprehension of at least all material which will be used ultimately in conversation practice is necessary. There should be ample opportunity for pupils to hear a variety of voices using the expressions which make up the material to be learned. Aural comprehension is an important skill in itself. An opportunity to hear language must precede any attempt to reproduce it orally. Some disagreement seems to revolve around the question of how much audio practice is necessary. One experimental program is currently reporting beneficial effects upon other skills from an extended audio period. This program allows the pupil to begin to speak the foreign language when he feels he is ready.

Objectives of the Foreign Language Elementary School Program

The elementary school foreign language, FLES, program is part of a long sequence of foreign language study and as such figures in the achievement of general long range aims of such study. However, it has, as well, rather specific goals which consider the unique part the elementary school can play in language learning. Goals of elementary school foreign language programs are the following:

General Objectives

1. Developing positive attitudes toward foreign language learning and toward people who speak foreign languages.

[4] According to Gesell and Ilg, values other than linguistic which are gained in early foreign language learning are not lost when study is discontinued. Gesell, Arnold, and Frances Ilg. The Child from Five to Ten. Harper, 1946. Gesell, Arnold, and Frances Ilg. Youth: The Years from Ten to Sixteen. Harper, 1956.

2. Beginning worthwhile linguistic learnings that can be used as a base for further work in a long sequence
3. Beginning the long process of learning a foreign culture through the foreign language

Special Linguistic Objectives

1. Mastery of the sound system of the foreign language
2. Aural comprehension of a limited number of sentence patterns common to the language, probably about 400
3. Memorization of between 80 and 100 percent of the patterns comprehended and ability to use them meaningfully as talk
4. Ability to read approximately 60 to 80 percent of the patterns comprehended
5. Command of the writing system to the extent that about 60 to 80 percent of the material mastered both aurally and lingually can be reproduced correctly spelled, capitalized, and punctuated in dictation exercises and in simple directed writing activities
6. Within the general guidelines stated above the teacher will recognize and provide for individual interests and learning rates
7. Each unit of work will acquaint the pupil with authentic utterances built into situational dialogues or songs, poems, games, or stories which will give the student an ever better understanding of what it means to be a child in a foreign country

Content of the Foreign Language Elementary School Program

Material chosen as the subject matter for elementary foreign language learning must be interesting to the youngster of elementary school age. It must provide him with the same strong desire for learning the second language that he feels for the first.

The language chosen for elementary foreign language learning must be authentic and worthwhile. Someone has said that "I ate" is more often followed by "a piece of pie" than "you ate," "he ate," and so on. Yet paradigms have played a large part in instructional practices of the past. Learning long lists of vocabulary has also very limited value. A word that cannot be used in an utterance is next to useless. "Das ist eine Nase" or "Es una cabeza" are sentences rarely used outside the classroom yet many foreign language classes have spent inordinate amounts of time practicing these expressions.

Dialogues

Dialogues based on situations with which the child is familiar provide excellent material for perfecting audio-lingual skills through mimicry-memorization and variation. Situations suitable for use in the elementary school are:

The School — incidents dealing with learning activities, classroom management, housekeeping chores, and school-connected out-of-class activities

The Home — eating one of the meals, keeping house, playing, watching television

The Community — using public transportation, shopping, learning about the adult world at work, asking directions

The Individual — practicing good health habits, getting up, dressing, enjoying hobbies

Social Life — going to or giving parties, vacationing, traveling, enjoying seasonal recreation, celebrating holidays, visiting the zoo and circus

Dialogues used at the beginning of Level I will be very short. Component parts of dialogue material for a typical unit will be:

1. The basic dialogue for mimicry-memorization
2. The dialogue adaptation or variation which makes minor changes in the basic dialogue to make it fit different situations
3. Directed dialogues which enable the teacher to elicit utterances learned from basic dialogues
4. Response drills which provide a stimulus statement or question calling for a given response
5. Recombination dialogues which re-use utterances in new combinations to form new dialogues

Sample Dialogue

1st child: Hello, what's your name?
2nd child: My name is Joe. And yours?
1st child: My name is Peter.

Sample Dialogue Adaptation

1st child: Hello, what's your cat's name?
2nd child: His name is Putzi. And your cat?
1st child: His name is Max.

Sample Directed Dialogue

Teacher: Ask that boy what his name is.
1st child: What's your name?
2nd child: My name is Joe. And yours?
1st child: My name is Peter.

Sample Response Drill

Teacher: Hello, what's your name?
Pupil I: My name is John.
Teacher: And what's your name?
Pupil II: My name is Peter.
Teacher: What's this girl's name?
Pupil III: Her name is Mary.

Sample Recombination Dialogue — for listening or further speaking practice

Pupil I: Hello, what's your name?
Pupil II: My name is John. And yours?
Pupil I: My name is Peter. Is that your cat?
Pupil II: Yes. His name is Max.
Pupil I: My cat's name is Putzi.

Techniques for Teaching Dialogues

The basic dialogues are introduced by the teacher speaking at normal speed using normal linking and intonation. Meaning is established through actions, gestures, facial expressions, pictures, and real objects. English should be avoided if at all possible in order to keep the second language separate from the first. If English must be used for clarification, the explanation should not be a literal translation but the natural English utterance which would be used in a similar situation.

When the entire class has practiced repeating the dialogue sentences after

the teacher-model, smaller and smaller groups within the class are called upon for repetition, and finally individual responses are required.

Next, dialogues are practiced with the teacher taking one role while the whole class takes the other. Again, gradually the size of the group is reduced until one pupil has the role opposite the teacher. When the children can respond accurately and confidently both in chorus and individually, the parts should be reversed so that the pupils learn all dialogue utterances. Eventually pupils can take both roles without the teacher. After a dialogue is learned, it is repeatedly dramatized by the children. Dramatization provides variety in class activities and takes advantage of the youngster's enthusiasm for role playing. Furthermore, it involves the child physically as well as mentally, thus strengthening the association between meaning and language. Puppet shows and skits are effective means of dramatization.

Once a dialogue has been learned well, there should be frequent re-entry of the utterances into new material to make the utterances meaningful. Learning materials chosen should provide for such re-entry in later units. Games, songs, or simple narratives should be chosen for class activities when they offer an opportunity to use familiar language in new ways.

Longer Dialogues

Longer and more complicated dialogues are learned later in Level I when the children have mastered many simple dialogues dealing with every day topics. These longer dialogues provide for re-entry of material learned earlier by incorporating pattern sentences which have already been learned with new phrases. As in shorter dialogues, pattern sentences which have already been learned can be re-introduced with occasional vocabulary changes, i.e., "What's your name?" becomes "What's your cat's name?" or "What's your sister's name?"

Sample Dialogue

1st child: Hello, Peter.
2nd child: Hello, Joe.
1st child: Where do you live?
2nd child: I live at 1015 Main street. And you?
1st child: I live at 965 Maple Street.
2nd child: Do you have a dog or a cat at home?
1st child: I have a cat but I don't have a dog.
2nd child: What's your cat's name?
1st child: Its name is Mitzi. Do you have a dog?
2nd child: Yes, I have a dog. Its name is Fido.

Learning long dialogues is accomplished by the same methods as learning short ones. However, as utterances get longer the teacher will have to make a point of breaking them down into elements which students can reproduce. Ordinarily utterances should be broken down into meaningful phrases about six syllables in length. These shorter phrases are modeled by the teacher and repeated by the pupils beginning with the last phrase of the utterance and adding additional preceding elements until the utterance is complete. While most repetition will be choral in nature, occasionally individual repetition should also be called for.

Sample Utterance Buildup

Teacher: I have a cat, but I don't have a dog.
Teacher: ..... I don't have a dog.
Pupils: ..... I don't have a dog.
Teacher: ..... , but I don't have a dog.
Pupils: ..... , but I don't have a dog.
Teacher: I have a cat, but I don't have a dog.
Pupils: . . I have a cat, but I don't have a dog.

Narratives and Descriptions

Narratives and descriptions can provide listening and speaking practice which is valuable for the learner. A narrative is a story relating a progression of events. An example of a simple narrative is the following account of daily routine.

Sample Narrative

I get up at eight o'clock.
I wash my hands and face and comb my hair.
I eat breakfast.
I go to school.

Such narratives can first be presented by tape, filmstrip, film, or television, or by the teacher with the help of a set of pictures. Later such a narrative can be dramatized by the children with suitable gestures and actions.

Simple stories from the foreign country can be told to the children before long. In this way the pupils are exposed to some of the same experiences as their age mates in another country. The gradual introduction of narratives also has the virtue of preparing the child for the language of narrative prose as opposed to the language of speech. One must also note that the elementary child is highly receptive to the imaginative stories so typical of folklore. Never again in his life will he be so interested in fairy tales and fables. While such stories should not dominate the program, used wisely, they can provide strong motivation for the young language learner. Children also enjoy dramatizing such stories and will put great effort into costuming and learning roles for live presentations or building theaters and making puppets for puppet presentations.

A description enumerates the qualities of something. An object such as a person, a doll, a house, or the classroom provides an opportunity for description.

Sample Description

My house is a big house in the city.
It is new and white.
It has a brown roof and large windows.

Like narratives, descriptions may be presented through a tape program, film, television, and by the classroom teacher. Eventually the children will enjoy presenting their own descriptions of pictures and objects they bring to school.

Songs, Rhymes, and Games

The role of songs, rhymes, and games in providing highly motivated reentry of vocabulary and structure has already been mentioned. The melody and rhythm of songs help establish good pronunciation and intonation. Rhymes

and simple poems are also used for this purpose. Children enjoy acting out the songs as they sing. Games provide a change of pace for practice of new expressions and for review. Games chosen must actually provide opportunity for worthwhile language use rather than demanding only physical activity. Unless the game is planned as an extended learning activity it should introduce little new vocabulary and no new structures.

Structure

If real language is used for foreign language classroom activities, much functional grammar will be learned naturally and effortlessly. However, language training will be most efficient if some attempt is made to purposely introduce structures that give the learner most difficulty because they conflict with patterns of English. Good elementary foreign language materials will provide sufficient practice in using such "conflicting" structures in order that their use will become natural for the non-native learner. Occasional short pattern drills may prove effective for practicing manipulation of patterns, especially in the upper grades; however, they should be used sparingly.

Reading

Currently, most elementary foreign language programs delay the introduction of reading and writing until well after audio-lingual learning has begun. There is considerable evidence to show that most pupils will learn proper pronunciation and intonation better if they concentrate first on listening and imitating rather than reading. The children will be more likely to give English values to the letters, words, and sentences if they see them in print before they have established adequate pronunciation and intonation habits.

In most classes there is probably no reason why the introduction of printed symbols should be prolonged beyond one year after the beginning of language study when elementary foreign language programs begin as late as the 4th grade. As a matter of fact the children are usually eager to learn to read and often must be held back against their will until a solid audio-lingual base is established. The teacher should continue to use the greater part of the instructional time for development of listening-speaking skills throughout Level I.

The child must develop a reading readiness in the foreign language just as he did in his own. Readiness to learn to read includes, beyond a desire to read, an oral facility in the use of approximately that dialogue material which might be introduced in one year of foreign language instruction. The child should be able to use this material in simple conversation without hesitation and his pronunciation of this material should be native or near native.

Materials presented for reading should consist of the expressions already mastered in the first year of oral-aural instruction. The teacher will find it desirable to read an utterance from the chalkboard, then have the students read in chorus. She should have them read individual words and phrases out of order to insure that pupils pay careful attention to the configuration of each word. After mass mimicry practice, individuals may be called upon to read the phrases and individual words from the utterance. It is highly important that the teacher verify that the student is actually reading rather than simply recalling the utterance from memory. As more expressions from a dialogue are introduced, the teacher should present them on the chalkboard in random order to verify learning. A picture depicting the action accompanying the utterance may help to reinforce meaning for the children.

Toward the end of the elementary grades some children may be ready for simple supplementary reading material. Vocabulary and structures should not go beyond that material already a part of the foreign language basal reading program but only reinforce it by using the language to express new ideas. A few new vocabulary words may be introduced in this material to give pupils practice in inferring meaning from context clues; Michael West suggests one new word in each 60 words of text.

Writing

Writing, or better yet, copying should begin almost simultaneously with the introduction of reading. The child should be expected to write only what he can read. Copying dialogue uttterances reinforces reading by compelling the pupil to observe each word carefully in order to reproduce it. Other simple writing activities include filling in a missing word or phrase in a sentence, working crossword puzzles, unscrambling sentences, and making picture dictionaries. The pupils may be asked to write labels for maps, charts, objects in the classroom, showcases and bulletin board displays. In time, dictation and simple descriptions are written. Dictation will be from short passages previously studied in spoken and written form. Descriptions may have their source in the lives of the children. "My house" or "Our dog" are possible topics. In any case, practice should always be on meaningful phrases, not isolated words.

Culture

The elementary pupil learning a foreign language should come to understand that mankind has developed many ways of living and communicating. Growth in cultural understanding goes hand in hand with the acquisition of foreign language skills. The child readily sees similarities and differences between his own culture and the foreign language culture in areas such as school, recreation, and occupations. The picturesque or quaint elements of a culture should not be overstressed. Through situations cultural understandings are developed. For example, a unit on home life contrasts American home life with that of the foreign country. These situations develop the child's appreciation of his own culture as well as an appreciation of the foreign language culture. An appreciation of the foreign language culture is developed through learning authentic sayings, idioms, rhymes, proverbs, games, and songs which are favorites of the child of his own age in the foreign country. One aspect of culture is learned by discussing and reading about the influence of the foreign country on American society through holidays, customs, and contributions of famous people. The study of culture must be a planned part of the foreign language learning.

Language learning is effectively increased by correlation with other curriculum areas such as social studies, arithmetic, music, arts, and literature.

Materials At Level I, Sequence A

Materials include teacher guides, texts, integrated programs, audio-visual aids, and supplementary books. Some criteria to keep in mind when choosing a basic program are the following:

(1) Materials presented should be suitable to the age and interests of the pupils. Materials should make use of common forms of communication such as dialogues, stories, dramatizations, questions and answers, and appropriate small talk.

(2) The subject matter should be such that the children can use it in conversations among themselves. All words and sentence should be part of connected discourse and related to a real life situation.
(3) The quantity of material should be limited to allow sufficient time to establish good language habits. There should be systematic recurrence of basic sentence patterns and vocabulary. Mastery of basic language is more important than the amount of material covered.
(4) There should be no oversimplification of the language to avoid idiomatic expressions, irregular verbs, and other complications. Use of both the familiar and formal forms of address should be included since the child of comparable age in the foreign culture employs both. Furthermore, a child acquires the intricacies of a language far more readily than the adolescent and the adult.
(5) The guide should contain songs, rhymes, games, and cultural information. It should suggest sources from which supplementary materials may be obtained.

Many new materials are becoming available for foreign language teaching in the elementary school. All materials must be carefully evaluated. Teachers will find additional materials listed in the Modern Language Association's *Selective List of Materials*.

LEVEL II — Sequence A

The Junior High School Child As A Language Learner

The junior high school child is in the initial stages of the transition period between childhood and adulthood. He is torn between a desire to retain childhood security and obtain adult status. These youngsters fear the disapproval of their peers and yet they need adult sanction as well. They are becoming increasingly aware of sex differences and boys are quick to reject most things which they regard as belonging to the girls' world. Yet, paradoxically, girls are beginning to attract them. Girls are often much more bold than boys in indicating interest in the opposite sex. Physically and intellectually girls will probably be more mature than boys.

The junior high school child is more analytical than his elementary school brothers and sisters in language learning and general attitude. Generalizations, i.e., rules, are more to his liking. He is better able to deal in abstract concepts and increasingly able to employ symbols.

Because his background of experience is increasing, the child of ages 12-14 years is a more efficient learner than earlier and more likely to profit from intensive training. He is more skillful at solving arithmetical problems, quicker in identifying colors and has a better understanding of the concept of time. His memory span is longer.

The junior high child has a great curiosity which he wants to satisfy immediately. There is a need for considerable variety in his classroom work.

Objectives of the Junior High Program, Level II — 7 and 8, Level III — 9

The junior high school program, grades 7-9, will ordinarily allow the youngster to complete intermediate levels II and III in the long sequence. It will build on foreign language learnings brought from the elementary school and prepare the child for advanced work in the senior high school. The program must take into consideration the fact that the incoming 7th grader has already spent three years learning by means of situational dialogues and can already read and write to a limited degree.

Objectives for Levels II and III follow:

General Objectives

1. Create an interest in language and language learning
2. Develop an understanding of how language, any language, is learned
3. Develop an understanding of the nature of language and how it works
4. Develop an understanding of the life of the early adolescent in the foreign country with special emphasis on alerting the learner to cross-cultural differences

Specific Linguistic Objectives

1. Aural understanding — develop the ability to get the sense of what an educated native says when he is enunciating carefully and speaking simply on a general subject.
2. Speaking — develop the ability to talk on prepared topics, e.g., for classroom situations, without obvious faltering and to use the common expressions needed for getting around in the foreign country, speaking with native or near native pronunciation and intonation.
3. Reading — develop the ability to read without translation, fiction intended for children of his age in the foreign country and non-fiction of the level commonly found in elementary school texts of the foreign country.
4. Writing — develop the ability to write correctly simple reports, friendly letters, skits, for example, dealing with assigned reading and daily life.

Content of Level II in Sequence A (The Nine Year Program)

As noted earlier, if the nine year sequence of foreign language study is going to be a successful program, it must be a carefully developed continuum providing for a sequential mastery of all language skills. Between the elementary school and junior high school the greatest obstacle to smooth articulation is the lack of materials especially constructed to provide for such a sequential development from grades 4-9. Materials are only now becoming available which will bridge the gap which currently exists between learning materials prepared for elementary school use and those prepared for use in the junior high school.

Review

A careful review of previously learned material is important for the language learner at the beginning of any school year. Such a review is particularly crucial at the beginning of Level II in Sequence A. At this point the youngsters are just beginning the junior high school, a radically different kind of experience since most of them have had their previous formal education in self-contained classrooms. They will have forgotten some language over the summer and may believe they know less than they actually do know. Topical units covered by various classes in the elementary foreign language program may have varied, leading to differences in vocabulary and structure learning. For various reasons learning may have been better in some cases than others.

When the materials used in the elementary school do not articulate directly with a junior high school foreign language series, junior high teachers would do well to start from the beginning of one of the widely used audio-lingual sys-

tems produced for secondary schools, using early units for review and reinforcement of skills already learned in the elementary foreign language sequence.

Basic Content
Level II

Conversations and skits which deal with subject matter of interest to 11-13 year olds will provide the vehicle for a substantial part of the language practice in Level II. Some topics appropriate for 7th and 8th grade use are the following:

1. Hobbies
2. Sports
3. Home Life
4. School Life
5. Recreation
6. Adventure (jungle, space, mystery)
7. Animals
8. Humor
9. Heroes

Conversations and skits will be practiced in substantially the same way as dialogues in Level I. However, teachers should be alert to the fact that youngsters in the long sequence will have already practiced mimicry-memorization for three years in the elementary school. Students may quickly become bored if they believe that they are getting just more of the same kind of training they had in grades 4, 5, and 6. An increasing amount of new material will be presented through reading in Level II and will be drilled less intensively than formerly. Students in Level II will benefit from reading the following:

1. Simple non-fiction dealing with geography, climate, population, products, music, art, customs, and history.
2. Simple biography and historical anecdotes.
3. Simple plays, easy short-short stories, legends, poetry, and letters.

Listening, speaking, and reading activities will all be designed to foster increasing independence on the part of the learner. He will be encouraged to use context clues in understanding spoken and written language and to use analogy in building utterances that vary somewhat from models he has memorized earlier. All activities will stress vocabulary development to a greater degree than in Level I.

Use of English

It is important that the student knows the meaning of the content studied. However, the use of translation to get at the meaning of narrative prose is not recommended in Level II and the teacher may often settle for some vagueness in understanding in order to foster thinking in the language. Normal everyday classroom activities, roll taking, collecting papers, opening windows, for example, should be conducted in the foreign language. English equivalents may profitably be used to give lexical meaning to basic sentences in dialogues, to summarize content of narratives to be read, to explain grammar and to drill grammar in translation type pattern drills. See Chapter V.

Listening In Level II (The Nine Year Program)

Level II listening activities will continue to provide models for a substantial amount of mimicry-memorization as on Level I. Students will have an increased responsibility, in addition, for providing practice in understanding through context clues. Unfamiliar vocabulary, idioms or structures will be introduced in judicious amounts as students are weaned from excessive dependence on overlearned basic sentences and guided toward understanding the rich variety of utterances possible in common discourse and oral narrative. Types of listening exercise will include the following:

1. Basic dialogue material tape recorded by native speakers
2. Recombinations of dialogue material in dialogue or narrative form and presented by the teacher or tape recordings for comprehension practice
3. Rather easy, short dramatizations, stories, legends, poems, and songs that are basic to a unit of study or that provide supplementary activities for a unit of study
4. Occasional easy films

All such listening activities should have a purpose readily discernible to the student. With basic dialogue material, listening activities should be quickly followed by mimicry-memorization or question-answer practice. With recombinations or other material recorded for listening practice, students should be held responsible for content through oral or written discussion. Answering questions, giving summaries, retelling in one's own words or changing to another form, i.e., dialogue to narrative or narrative to dialogue, are some ways to follow up a listening activity and check on pupil comprehension.

Speaking In Level II (The Nine Year Program)

As a result of their elementary foreign language experience students should have established good command of the sound and melody system of the foreign language. However, early weeks of the second level will have to be spent in review of material covered in Level I. When all elementary pupils have learned the same material, the junior high school teacher can use the elementary materials as a basis for the review. This will be particularly successful if the 7th grade has as a basic program materials which are written to build precisely on the elementary foreign language learning.

As indicated earlier, where materials in elementary school and junior high school are not so carefully coordinated, review and reinforcement of phonology, intonation, simple grammar, and syntax can be provided by early chapters of a beginning audio-lingual text. Massive dosages of mimicry-memorization practice should be unnecessary. Early material should ordinarily be covered quickly.

Review dialogues in either case will serve the purpose of "retuning" the students' ears and vocal apparatus to pronunciation, pitch, and stress of the second language.

After the review period, the teacher should continue to devote time to practicing pronunciation. Such attention is necessary to provide reinforcement and prevent deterioration of this skill. Mimicry-memorization will continue to be used for practicing longer utterances and new topics which will characterize situational dialogues in Level II.

Substitution and transformation drills will be used often to make manipulation of structure automatic. Conflict points, i.e., areas of learning that are difficult because of differences in English and the foreign language, will be particularly stressed.

Increasing freedom will be allowed the learner to speak out of the narrow confines of the basic sentences he learned in Level I. Teacher and student-led question-answer drill will deal with material heard and read. Such activity gives students practice in rephrasing elements of a question to make a reply. Students will be directed to build recombination dialogues or reports according to outlines given them in English or the foreign language. Example recombination assignment:

Tell a friend about a letter you got from a German pen pal. Relate what he told you about his family. Give the father's profession and daily activities of mother and older brother.

Students may be assigned the preparing of "original" skits re-using utterances learned in basic dialogues or based on an anecdote. For example, students might dramatize a Baron Münchhausen adventure.

A final possible activity is the preparation of an oral report carefully modeled on a previously studied narrative. In this type of report minimal changes in the text make it possible for all students to give personal presentations. Example of model text for oral report:

My father is 53 years old and my mother 45. My father was born in Duluth and my mother in Moorhead. My father is a bricklayer. My mother was formerly a secretary . . .

Reading In Level II (The Nine Year Program)

During Level I most students will have done very little reading. Reading activities will have been limited mainly to reading of dialogues previously practiced extensively in oral-aural drills and some recombination dialogues and narratives. On Level II in the long sequence the student must learn to read and understand vocabulary and structures which have not become a part of his speech repertoire. He must learn to read swiftly and extensively simple stories, essays, and other writings.

In the beginning when the reading aim begins to receive a large share of the learner's time, he will be handicapped by his lack of vocabulary, his inability to use context clues unconsciously and a monocultural background which may make it difficult for him to understand material written by foreign authors or about the foreign country.

Because of these difficulties there will be a temptation to set for translation of material read in order to check comprehension. Such a temptation should be resisted as should any tendency to assign vocabulary lists for learning. Activities which are teacher rewarded should be those which involve using the foreign language reading text for a purpose such as discussion in the foreign language.

Teacher guidance will be necessary to help the student make conscious use of grammar clues, background knowledge of a subject and knowledge of likely natural behavior, human and otherwise, in guessing at meaning of unknown constituents in a sentence or paragraph.

In Level II students will continue to read much material which is presented first for audio-lingual practice. They will also receive practice in reading dialogue material in new forms, for example, recombined into new dialogues or narratives. Some material will be learned initially in narrative form. Usually such narratives will be first presented by the teacher or a tape recording for listening drill and then for mimicry-reading practice by the class.

The above material represents what is often called a basal reading program because students work at it together. Already in Level II there will be some students who can profitably begin reading simple graded materials outside the basal program. Such extensive reading should be encouraged but the student should be allowed to read a number of texts at any one level of difficulty before he is pushed ahead to a new and more difficult level. Such extensive reading represents one excellent way to provide for individual differences in the foreign language classroom.

Writing In Level II (The Nine Year Program)

Although reading and writing, i.e., copying, may have been introduced simultaneously in Level I, the fact that writing has received less practice than any of the other skills will mean that it has lagged behind listening, speaking, and reading. Writing activities will increase considerably in the second level, but they will remain at a lower level than other activities. Writing assignments must not ask students to express ideas they are not able to express orally.

Students in Level II should in the beginning have the benefit of review writing practice just as they review other skills. Such review should involve copying at home material reviewed at least once and several times if necessary. Short daily dictation practice should check on ability of students to write passages without reference to the textbook. Using recombination dialogues and narratives for dictation exercise will provide variety that will not overly tax the learner.

After the review period students will begin to learn increasing amounts of new and more difficult material. Occasional copying assignments will continue to be necessary. However, many other kinds of writing activities will be necessary to provide variety and opportunity for increasing independence of expression. Some suggested writing activities are the following:

1. Continued occasional copying and dictation practice
2. Reorganization of jumbled sentences to form meaningful utterances (house, after, Jane, school, our, went, to)
3. Modifying a sentence to practice making changes in grammar and syntax-changing tense, singular to plural, inverting word order, for example
   Note: Many oral substitution and transformation drills lend themselves to written practice.
4. Writing an assignment already given in an oral report
   a. Practice in changing point of view: for example, changing a dialogue to the report of the incident by a third person.
   b. Completion of a paragraph to follow a supplied topic sentence, i.e., Today I went to the beach.
   c. Writing a controlled (directed) composition outlined in English or the foreign language for the student. See examples above: recombination speaking assignment and sample model text for oral report.
5. Answering questions that follow a dialogue or narrative in the textbook. Normally the questions should be answered orally first in class.

Grammar In Level II (The Nine Year Program)

Even in the elementary foreign language program students are exposed to the grammar of language through basic sentences and occasional pattern drills used to strengthen ability to manipulate basic patterns. In Level II grammar

should be studied more systematically and formally. Pattern drills will b… used more extensively and students will become acquainted with rules of gra… nmar. Much has been said about whether students should create their own rules … or be provided with the rules in the text or by the teacher. Actually there is evi… dence to indicate that students learn a given language equally well by either m… ethod. However, one may speculate that students who learn by the "discovery me… thod" might become more perceptive learners and be better able to learn a thir… d language when and if this should become necessary. In any case grammar l… knowledge is a relevant part of the culture and should be learned. It should … not be overstressed for its own sake at this level. Generalizations about str… cture, i.e., grammar rules, should be available for reference in the student te… xt and teachers should be sure that students are familiar with the location and … use of the reference. Teachers and pupils should discuss *briefly* the patterns of … struc-ture change as such patterns become clear in basic dialogues and pattern … drills.

Culture In Level II (The Nine Year Program)

In Level II the student should have some experiences which are typi… cal for the young adolescent in the foreign land. Material at the second level … should draw the student's attention to cross-cultural contrasts in order to alert st… udents to specific cultural differences and to make them more likely to discove… r addi-tional differences on their own. Activities specifically designed to achie… ve cul-tural objectives are the following:

1. Studying dialogues and narratives that deal with daily life in the … foreign land. See suggested topics under Basic Content, Level II.
2. Learning songs and games appropriate to youngsters of this age, 12-1… 3.
3. Reading some simplified fiction similar to that read by young adol… escents in the foreign land.
4. Studying the geography of the foreign country.
5. Reading biographical sketches about some great persons in histo… ry and the arts.
6. Viewing slides, filmstrips, films, and pictures of all kinds that sh… ow the environment which surrounds native speakers of the language … being studied.

Level III — Sequence A

General Content for Level III (The Nine Year Program)

In general one may say that Level III must be concerned with review … and ex-tension of learnings in listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The level … should be characterized by an increasing synthesis of the four skills and prov… ide for their concurrent practice. The focus on reading will increase, but mater… ial read should also be discussed in oral and written work and some provision … should be made for unit-related listening activities.

Percentage of Time Devoted to Various Skills — Level III

Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
25%	25%	35%	15%

Units of study should be selected which will appeal to students of … this age level; and when possible, the units should relate to other subjects being … studied.

In addition teachers should consider individual student interests and provide opportunities for students to use their language skill and initiative on independent and group projects. Classroom activities continue to be varied not only from day to day but during the class period. Teachers ought to avoid the temptation to spend the whole hour on one activity in order to "cover" it except on occasions when the activity will excite high interest in all students.

At the beginning of the school year teachers and pupils together should examine the Level III basic text and note the kinds of material covered. Students should know how this year will differ from previous years and why. They should be told the reading materials will be unsimplified. Students ought to know the importance of reading different kinds of text material and of using different reading techniques. Time should be spent in showing students how to use context clues and to cope with different writing styles. Students also need to understand the continuing importance of improving oral skills and becoming better writers.

Above all, Level III fosters increasing student independence in language use. Careful planning insures that step by step students are guided to flexibility in listening and reading skills. In the course of the year opportunities are provided for increasingly unstructured oral and written practice.

Unit Topics

Suitable topics for use in Level III are many. No unit should contain an exhaustive treatment of the subject. The subject should be interesting to a fourteen-year-old, and may be related to other course work of the ninth grade student. Some suggestions for general areas are listed below. Units should deal with some limited topic within the broad subject area.

Suggested Areas for Study

1. History — Columbus Discovers America
2. Sports — Soccer
3. Etiquette — Eating Out
4. Science — Atomic Energy
5. Politics — Electing a President (or Chancellor)
6. Education — High School in Germany
7. Fashion — Clothing, Then and Now
8. Conservation — Hydro-electric Projects
9. Entertainment — Enjoying Television and Movies
10. Famous Persons in Various Fields — Art, literature, politics, education, science, for example
11. Modern Literature — A Selected Modern Play
12. Music, Popular and Classical, Folksongs
13. Comparative Grammar — Some Ways that English Differs from the Target Language

Appropriate Materials

By the time the student reaches Level III a wealth of material is available for study. Some new learning systems contain splendid selections of different kinds of materials. In the case of others the teacher will have to supplement from various sources in order to provide the variety necessary to encourage enthusiastic learning. Appropriate sources of materials for study are the following:

1. Contemporary Literature: Drama, journalistic writing, short stories, text-

book selections covering various subjects, advertisements, cor nics, jokes, cartoons, poetry, and mystery stories.
2. Grammar Books
3. Music Books and Recordings: Contemporary, folk, operatic
4. Foreign Language Films
5. Recorded Radio Programs
6. Various Reference Books: Foreign language encyclopedias, atlases and dictionaries, for example

Level III Listening Activities (The Nine Year Program)

Listening activities during Level III should feature a variety of vo ices speaking the foreign language at the normal rate in a variety of situations. Male and female voices of various ages speaking with some dialect differen ces are appropriate. Throughout the year increasingly difficult material shoul d be introduced.

Recordings of plays, parts of operas, films, lectures, poems, song s, and contemporary narratives are suitable content. Often this material w ill also be studied in printed form. Some of the material may profitably be mem norized and recited or dramatized. Much student listening practice, of course, will come from hearing fellow pupils in various speaking activities or from te acher presentation. However, it continues to be highly important for stude nts to hear many authentic native voices.

All listening activities should have a purpose obvious to the stude nt. Usually it will be gathering information about the general topic being s tudied. Occasionally the purpose may be entertainment. In any case, it is very important that the student have a specific assignment as he listens and that he be held responsible for that assignment. The student may be told to take n notes on the material. He may be given a question or questions to answer, i.e., What do we learn about Russian foods from this program? Usually class discu ssion of the material should follow its presentation.

Sometimes it will be necessary to prepare students for listening, a nd viewing in the case of a film. This may mean providing the meaning of the new expressions; it may mean giving the student an idea of the contents. The amount of pre-listening orientation will depend on the difficulty of the materia l. Certainly material selected should not be overly difficult, nor should it expect too much of the student culturally. For example, student background, not test out, should determine when students are ready to learn about opera, foreign government or the history of language. Of course, skillful teaching may whet student interest in a topic that a teacher believes is important.

Level III Speaking Activities (The Nine Year Program)

In the third level the foreign language class should be conducted entirely in the foreign language. Oral activities of various kinds will grow naturally out of listening and reading assignments.

Considerable attention must continue to be paid to maintaining pronunciation and intonation skills as students learn in Level III. A number of activities will make it possible to maintain and perhaps improve such skills. Students must continue to hear a number of good models for imitation. This means that portions of narrative material under study should be used for choral and individual mimicry-reading in classroom and language laboratory. Secondly, some dialogue material should be part of third level learning. This is best practiced by mimicry-memorization techniques as in earlier levels. Finally, many modern plays are appropriate for study at this level particularly when dramatic recordings of the text are available for listening repetition practice. Such plays or parts of them may be performed by student groups for their classmates, for foreign language students at other levels, and for non-student groups such as the PTA.

Certain other speaking activities of previous levels will be continued. Question-answer practice dealing with content of text material helps students to retain new information as well as learn new vocabulary, idioms, and structure. Questions may be posed by the teacher or students in the classroom, or on tape in the language laboratory. When students themselves are to ask the questions, they can prepare the questions outside of class.

The directed dialogue so useful in Levels I and II continues to have a place in Level III activities. It will provide another way to review material found in reading and to help students begin to use such material orally. Besides some of the kinds of directed dialogues outlined for the first two levels, a semi-directed dialogue is useful for encouraging some creativity in dialogue building. In a semi-directed dialogue the students are provided with the first part of each utterance upon which they build to make parts of the conversation.

Sample Semi-Directed Dialogue

Student A: (Introduces topic) I was interested to read this morning that . . .

Student B: (Agrees and adds a point) I found it interesting, too. It also said that . . .

Student C: (Asks for more information) Who? . . . What? . . . When? . . . Why? . . .

Speaker A: Answers

Speaker C: Asks another question

Speaker B: (Answers) I believe that.

The above pattern and other similar formats may be used to talk about many different subjects.

Oral Reports

Individual oral reports related to topics under study are excellent for adding interest to units. By Level III students should be able to make short reports on independent reading and listening activities. To be most effective such assignments should appear to evolve naturally out of class discussion. Individual reports will appear important to all when they are assigned to clear up a question asked by a member of the class or the teacher, or when they add interesting additional information to that provided by the basic set of learning materials. Obviously special reports are an excellent way of providing for individual abil-

1. An Important Man in History
2. My Hero
3. An Interesting Person
4. A Book I Have Read
5. An Interesting Play I Have Seen
6. My Future Career

Other individual in-front-of-the-class presentations that can be made are: telling a joke, explaining a word, trying to sell a product or a service, describing

an incident or a thing, telling a story, presenting a newscast and giving a "how to do it" demonstration.

Class Discussion

Beginning and maintaining a stimulating discussion in the classroom is an art. To be really successful it should involve all students and not require constant questions and comments by the teacher. Students in Level III may not feel as free to join in a discussion as they would in other classes in which English is the means of communication. Advance structuring of the discussion can help to insure that it will go smoothly. Students should be alerted beforehand to the contributions that members of the group can make to begin a discussion and keep it moving. The following outline suggests a pattern for group discussion:

1. An idea or topic is introduced
2. Agreement with the idea is expressed
3. Disagreement is expressed
4. Additional information is asked for
5. Additional information is provided
6. The idea is illustrated through an anecdote from personal experience
7. A new person is drawn into the discussion by a question
8. The subject is changed to a related topic

Besides alerting students to the mechanics of discussions, the teacher will have to insure that the topic itself will stimulate student thought. Sometimes topics may be selected which are exciting great current student interest. A popular teen-age idol, a political campaign, lowering the voting age, a school problem or issue, or raising the minimum age for obtaining a driver's license can usually be depended on to excite spirited discussion. Often the teacher will find it possible to base discussion on topics found in reading assignments. For example, reading about medieval cities might develop into a discussion about how the town wall became an anachronism. The latter then might lead into a discussion concerning the implications of nuclear energy for modern warfare.

Group Presentations

In Levels I and II students are often asked to memorize dialogues for presentation before the class. In Level III students should continue to perform before the class. However, memorization of a dialogue from the text will be less common.

Students will often eagerly spend many hours preparing material for eventual class presentation. They especially like writing and presenting satires or parodies of radio and television programs. Presenting a commercial, professional lecture, magic act, a quiz program, a sportscast or a newscast are types of activity they may enjoy from time to time. Original skits may be dialogue versions of material found in reading assignments. When the class reads a play the teacher might determine whether or not some portions of the play should be performed by class members. Normally such performances would not require memorization of parts of the play.

Memorization

Though dialogue memorization will be less common in Level III than in previous levels, memorization of portions of various written materials continues to be an effective learning activity. Memorization of dialogues and portions of great plays, poems, songs, and narrative text will continue to give students material upon which they can build speaking skills. As often as possible, memorization should have a more obvious purpose than the students being able to recite from memory for the teacher or the class. Memorizing songs for group singing is usually purpose enough to justify the effort. Being able to quote what a great writer has said about a subject is one of the marks of an educated man.

Level III Reading Activities (The Nine Year Program)

In Level III reading activities should place an emphasis on comprehension rather than style and literary analysis. Students at this level need practice in reading for different purposes, i.e., general idea, details, or skimming to find a specific piece of information. They need practice in reading extensively as well as intensively. They need to read many different kinds of texts. During Level III they should have contacts with essays, poems, historical text, short stories, newspapers, magazines, drama, short novels. Selections chosen should tend to be short or at least short for their type, and they should by their style and subject matter appeal to youth of the age that will use them. Writers who use long and complicated sentences and whose writing is highly stylized should be avoided.

As mentioned earlier the learner will continue to benefit from occasional practice in choral reading after the teacher or a taped voice. Individuals should also be called upon to read orally from time to time from materials under study. Such practice will help develop natural intonation, pronunciation, speed, and pleasing cadence, and reading in thought units.

Even though extreme care is taken to provide a gradual increase in difficulty of reading materials, students will constantly run up against words and phrases that they do not understand. In general teachers and students should try to avoid turning to English for meaning. Glossaries and foreign language dictionaries will help the student learn new expressions and reinforce old learnings. Teaching students to use context clues, foreign language definitions, and to recognize word families will help students to become increasingly independent. Synonyms and antonyms for new words can often be provided to clarify meaning in preference to giving equivalents in English.

Teachers can often anticipate that reading selections will present difficulties for students. In such cases the teacher can provide pre-reading orientation about setting, characters, plot, and author to prepare the class. When necessary particularly difficult elements of grammar, idioms, or unusual vocabulary can be studied before the reading is undertaken.

Considerable practice in sight reading of unfamiliar materials will be beneficial to learners and help determine their progress in reading skills. Students should be held responsible for displaying their understanding of at least the general ideas of the material. Of course, reading matter chosen must make reasonable demands on the learner.

Individual out-of-class reading should increase in Level III. Sometimes such reading will be done as an extra assignment in order to find out additional facts about the subject under study. In addition, teachers should encourage outside reading based on special interests. Both fiction and non-fiction in the foreign language should be available in the classroom or library for the purpose of appealing to individual interests and abilities. The ideal foreign language classroom will have bookcases filled with books in English and the foreign language as well as foreign language newspapers and periodicals in racks.

Level III Writing Activities (The Nine Year Program)

On Level III far less time than previously should be devoted to simple copying of sections of new materials. Occasional copying may be done as a part of a reading assignment in which students are told to locate sentences which prove a point, i.e., illustrate an aspect of character or indicate the main points of an argument. Locating and copying topic sentences may teach students how to summarize the main thoughts of an entire essay. These sentences may also become main points in an outline.

Dictation

Writing dictation continues to have value since it fixes student attention on precise spelling, capitalization, and punctuation of new material learned. Students should ordinarily be advised about a forthcoming dictation test so that they may prepare for it. During Level III a modified dictation provides a creative exercise for the learner. The modified dictation may be one of two types:

1. The teacher dictates a dialogue or narrative omitting certain elements, for example, words and phrases. Students go back and add appropriate material.
2. The teacher dictates one-half of a dialogue or narrative. Students then add enough original material to complete the exercise.

Writing answers to questions on the reading, as mentioned in Level II, is often an excellent method of providing the student with some opportunity to frame answers either by using the exact wording of the text or by using a considerable part of the question plus a word or phrase from the text. In the course of this activity the student gets considerable practice in changing interrogative sentences to declarative ones.

Drill type writing activities for Level III are the following:

1. Rewriting jumbled sentences. For example: Town to John driving is. (John is driving to town)
2. Writing structure drills or translation drills. See Chapter V.
3. Rewriting sentences or paragraphs in a different person or tense.
4. Combining sentences, simple to compound or complex.
5. Writing simple sentences from a compound or complex sentence.

A simple written exercise is one in which blanks are left in printed summaries or recombinations of material previously studied. Students fill in the blanks with appropriate words or phrases.

A more advanced type of composition activity provides the student with a topic sentence which he is to develop into a written paragraph. Sometimes he may be given a title and told to write a topic sentence for it. Next he writes three sentences to develop the topic and finally adds a concluding sentence.

One type of guided composition has several steps. First the student writes answers to questions on a dialogue. Next, he combines and expands the answers to write a narrative.

As the student becomes more skillful in paragraph writing he may be required to write on topics of the following type:

1. Telling an incident based on a personal experience
2. Reporting on a school event
3. Expressing an opinion or preference on a specific topic

Many teachers find that they are able to inspire student writing through pictures depicting some action or thing. Students are told to write a story or dialogue describing what they see. Rewriting a previously read story from memory is another method of providing semi-guided composition practice.

Grading Compositions

In grading a written exercise a number of factors must be taken into account. Teachers should consider the following:

1. Total output — number of words
2. Range and diversity of vocabulary
3. Accuracy in spelling, capitalization, and punctuation
4. Correctness of language usage
5. Quality in sentence structure, i.e., variety in type and length

Level III Letter Writing (The Nine Year Program)

An activity which excites extreme interest on the part of many students is writing letters to students of the same age in a foreign country. By Level III with careful guidance from the teacher most students could begin writing individual letters. Teachers can help students by initially providing model letters which can be easily modified to fit each individual. Letter exchanges will usually get off to a better start if teachers volunteer to review rough copies of their students' letters. Students should be encouraged to bring to class letters which they get from overseas in order that all students may benefit.

Some teachers prefer to set up letter exchanges between their own class and a class in a foreign country. In this case all students can share in writing and receiving the letters. Once begun the exchange can grow into an exchange of tape recordings, scrapbooks, and other class projects.

Levels IV, V, VI — Sequence A
Grades 10, 11, 12

The Senior High School Student as a Language Learner (Nine Year Program)

The senior high school student is increasingly desirous of gaining independence from adult supervision and concerned about maintaining or achieving status in peer groups. He may actually be reluctant to begin learning to speak a foreign language for fear of sounding queer to others. He is increasingly interested in abstract thought and solving problems. As a consequence, if he is just beginning a foreign language, he may want to translate and know the "rules" of the language. He is no longer eager to memorize material and has lost some of his ability to imitate new sounds.

In senior high school students become interested in college, careers, and identifying desirable characteristics for a marriage partner. These young adults maturing in their ability to reason and building personal philosophies and attitudes toward life are more fully aware than ever before of the social, economic, and political issues of the day. They are interested in their present culture and technology and problems concerning their community, nation, and world. At the same time the senior high school student is increasingly aware of the importance of lessons of the past for solving problems of the present. He is generally open minded and welcomes new learning experiences.

The senior high school student is ready to enjoy hearing, reading, discussing, and writing about mature topics. The topics of interest to him will pro-

vide excellent vehicles for strengthening communications skills at the same time that they help him to better deal with the problems of life.

Since competency in a foreign language is part of a liberal education, the foreign language program in the senior high school should correlate with other subjects in the student's schedule. The student now uses the foreign language for locating information about matters of importance to him as well as for providing a key to worthwhile use of leisure time for reading or travel.

Objectives for the Senior High School — Levels IV, V, VI (The Nine Year Program)

The Senior High School program in the nine year sequence will normally allow the student to finish advanced levels, IV, V, and VI in the foreign language. It will stress acculturation through exposure to elements of the foreign culture typically a part of an older teen-ager's experience in the foreign land. Objectives for Levels IV through VI follow:

General Objectives

1. Develop an understanding of the nature of language — its changing character, how it reflects culture
2. Continue to foster an interest in language and language learning
3. Develop an appreciation of the role that the foreign language can play in achieving the general goals of education, developing salable skills, promoting worthwhile use of leisure time
4. Develop a true cross-cultural insight because of long exposure to the foreign culture

Specific Linguistic Objectives

1. Develop the ability to communicate in a fashion appropriate for the young adult in the foreign society on topics of general interest from his own and the foreign country.
2. Develop skill in reading for different purposes the many kinds of materials typically read by an average student of his age in the foreign culture
3. Develop insights into adult life in the foreign country with special emphasis on alerting the learner to cross-cultural differences between the foreign culture and his own
4. Develop an ability to translate with a feeling for correct interpretation from one language to the other material within the scope of his knowledge and experience
5. Begin advanced work in conversation, syntax, composition, and mature literature on the basis of a sound fundamental knowledge of the foreign language and culture

Basic Content Level IV (The Nine Year Program) Grade 10

When choosing content for Level IV one must keep in mind that the language learner in the nine year sequence is a 15-year-old, not a college student. His background may make him as yet unappreciative of really great works of literature even if he can read them. His interests will tend to center around the following areas:

1. School Life
2. Sports
3. High adventure, especially for the boys
4. Travel
5. Humor
6. Romance, especially for the girls
7. Family life, especially for the girls
8. Science, especially for the boys

Content for Level IV should be chosen for its appeal to the 15-year-old child as well as for its educational value. It is possible also in Grade 10 to relate many activities to other courses that students are studying. Suitable content includes the following:

1. Contemporary literature read both in and out of class
2. Current events
3. History, some parallel units to coincide with the world history course
4. Science, particularly important biologists and some of the concepts which they discovered
5. Travel, including some situational dialogues, readings, and films about various areas in the foreign country
6. The foreign language, its source and development
7. The foreign heritage — great scholars, artists, writers, composers, and monuments

Foreign language teachers who wish to teach units related to those taught by colleagues in other departments should investigate what units will be taught to 10th grade students particularly by teachers in the language arts and social studies. Some particularly promising units for the 10th grade are suggested in *A Guide for Instruction in the Language Arts*[5]

Adventures Far and Near
Radio and Television Appreciation
Family and Home
Reading Magazines for Pleasure and Profit
The Power of Language
Team Play and Individuality

Excellent suggestions for developing these units also appear in this guide for English teachers. Foreign language teachers could use much of this material in developing corresponding units of instruction.

Materials to be used in Level IV will not vary greatly in kind from those used in Level III. They will, however, be somewhat more difficult both in the ideas they present and in the language they use. Suitable materials include:

1. Recordings of radio programs, newscasts, plays, poetry, music, and narratives
2. Filmstrips, slides, and sound films
3. Plays, novels, short stories, poems, newspapers and magazines

It should be remembered that individual differences in ability and interest among students will require that teachers individualize assignments as much as is possible. Teachers should inform themselves regarding student interests

[5] A Guide for Instruction in the Language Arts. Grades 7-12. Curriculum Bulletin No. 18, State Department of Education, St. Paul. 1956. pp. 219–285.

and capitalize on those interests to stimulate learning. Information about student interests can be gathered through questionnaires and class discussions. At no time should teachers fall into the habit of having all students read old favorites from their college days. Such stories often have little appeal for large numbers of students in a given classroom.

Review

The beginning of senior high school, Level IV, is an important place for systematic review before proceeding to entirely new material. In Level IV students with varying backgrounds will be coming together for the first time in the unfamiliar senior high school setting. These students will gain confidence from working with elements of language which do not overtax their linguistic ability. Generally one can say that a stimulating reader, no more difficult than the last work read in Level III, can be used for reading, discussion, and writing practice. Such initial study can be very helpful in aiding the teacher to discover areas needing remedial practice and to determine approximate abilities in the four skills. Mass mimicry or special pronunciation practice, intonation practice, pattern practice, and writing drills of various kinds may be necessary to prepare students before launching into the real Level IV course work. During the review period, however, students with more adequate command of the language should not have to mark time while others try to catch up. They should be given worthwhile unit related listening, speaking, reading, and writing assignments.

Percentage of Time Devoted to Various Skills — Level IV

Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
20%	20%	40%	20%

Listening Activities for Level IV (The Nine Year Program)

By Level IV specific listening activities take a much smaller portion of study time than formerly. Listening activities are no longer chosen primarily to give students practice in understanding oral language, but because the activity will contribute some valuable information to the unit under study. Students get *daily* listening practice in the course of monitoring student and teacher discussions and presentations during normal class procedures. However, teachers should make it a rule to plan some specific listening activities as a part of every unit. Recordings of literary readings, music, plays, radio programs, newscasts, and films can usually be found which pertain to a unit of study. Recordings of literary materials are now readily obtainable from American representatives of foreign companies. Enterprising individuals often find it possible to tape record *Voice of America* or foreign radio transmissions. When such programs are not easily obtainable, synthetic newscasts may be recorded from foreign language newspaper stories by the teacher or some local foreign language speaker. Students can benefit from listening to some lectures, taped or live, when the lectures relate to unit learning activities.

Speaking Activities for Level IV (The Nine Year Program)

In Level IV the foreign language class will be conducted entirely in the foreign language. In addition, the class will move and move stress pupil to pupil discussion as the teacher tries to play a less obvious role in managing class affairs. Suitable speaking activities for Level IV follow:

1. Class and small groups may discuss individual interests, contemporary topics and material heard, read, or viewed. Discussions of literature should pertain to plot, characters, situations, and levels of meaning — literal, symbolic, philosophic — appropriate to the age of the student
2. Students may present prepared and impromptu speeches about authors, novels, plays, personal topics, current events, and cultural topics
3. Pronunciation, intonation, and phrasing practice will be introduced as needed
4. Portions of plays may be presented by class groups
5. Oral readings of prose and poetry may be presented to the class

Reading In Level IV (The Nine Year Program)

It must be presumed that students in Level IV will be concerned with learning tasks normally assigned to mature readers. Learning to read well is, of course, a long term task and some attention will be directed to developing reading skills characteristic of the good mature reader. Increasing attention must be paid to reading speed to a point consistent with good comprehension and learning to read for inference and detail. Furthermore, students will have to continue to gain experience reading a wide variety of materials for many different purposes. Some practice in each of the following kinds of reading should be included in the reading program: skimming, reading for the general significance of a passage, organizing what is read, reading to follow directions, reading to predict outcomes, forming sensory impressions from what is read, noting details and reading critically. Much of the reading in Level IV should be done independently outside of class. All students should be encouraged to select books in the foreign language from the school or public library for individual reading. Reference books in the foreign language should be used to locate information needed for units of study. Preferably most foreign language books other than basic texts used by Level IV students should be located in the school library. Students should be encouraged to use library facilities for preparing foreign language assignments.

Whenever possible literature assignments should be made with a view to providing insights into the foreign culture. Codes of etiquette, customs of family life, such as marriage, birth, death, education, and professions are some areas that may be better understood through reading and discussion.

Writing Activities In Level IV (The Nine Year Program)

Many Level III writing activities will be equally useful in Level IV. Some dictation practice will continue to be useful in learning to write new material. Answering questions regarding subject matter should also be continued in Level IV. However, questions should be asked so that students will often not be able to simply rephrase the question to provide the major part of the answer. Neither should they always be able to answer by copying a statement from the text. More and more questions should require student interpretation of the reading. Answers should represent thoughtful student comment rather than simply parroting sentences from textbooks. Other writing activities are:

1. Writing compositions and resumes dealing with films, readings, and recorded materials
2. Taking notes in the foreign language on class discussions, reports, and lectures
3. Writing exercises to reinforce learning of basic language structures and to practice structures that appear only in writing with occasional use of foreign language reference grammars and dictionaries

Writing exercises as well as other activities should be geared to individual differences in background and ability.

Developing A Unit of Foreign Language Instruction

The term "Unit of Instruction" has several meanings. As used earlier in this guide it often referred to nothing more than a chapter in a textbook, that is, a grammar unit, or a basic dialogue plus certain activities, such as pattern drills, dialogue adaptations, and recombination narratives.

For more mature learners who have acquired basic skills in language whether their native language or a second one, a unit is more complicated. Properly conceived it is developed around a question or a problem that is meaningful, even exciting for the learner. It may provide for learning in several subject matter areas, that is, language and social studies or science, and should include a variety of learning activities and materials. A suggested outline follows.

A Good Unit of Instruction

A. Setting or Orientation
   1. Are learning materials at the proper linguistic difficulty level available for the students?
   2. Are the learners interested in the proposed topic or can they be interested in it?
   3. Can the youthful learner understand the complexities of the topic?
   4. What linguistic and general experiences must he have had to engage in study of the unit topic?
   5. What common experiences, linguistic and otherwise, must the teacher provide as a prerequisite to work on the unit of study?

B. The Objectives
   1. To further the student's ability to do independent learning in the foreign language
   2. To stimulate the student's desire to learn through reading in the foreign language, viewing films and other similar activities
   3. To gain significant knowledge, cultural or social, from the unit activities
   4. To participate in the formulation and acceptance of objectives

C. The Introduction and Approach
   1. Does the unit grow out of an immediate, vital, real, and significant interest and therefore tap the enthusiasm of the group?
   2. Is the introduction a joint-cooperative activity of the teacher and students?
   3. Do the introduction and approach serve to reveal individual interests and backgrounds that may be cultivated in special independent and group projects, for example, oral and written reports, creative writing?
   4. Do the introduction and approach serve to reveal individual needs for special help and attention in understanding the language and concepts peculiar to the topic?
   5. Does the introduction provide the student with a comprehensive overview of the unit and understanding of the objectives?
   6. Does the introduction guide the student to the appropriate foreign language study materials as well as acquaint him with proper techniques for using the materials?

D. The Learning Activities
   1. Is there a variety of learning activities provided to meet individual and group interests and needs, that is, activities that call for observation, listening, reading, gathering information, organizing, critical reflection, generalizing, application, creative expression, cooperative action, and social participation?
   2. Are there differentiated activities for pupils of different levels of ability and maturity?
   3. Are there common activities to assure mastery of a "kernel" content of concepts and language?
   4. Are there diagnostic activities to check quality of learning and remedial activities to correct misunderstandings of content as well as misuse of language?
   5. Are there activities designed to improve work and study habits?
   6. Are there activities provided to insure that every pupil may experience success?
   7. Are there activities provided so that students will become more responsible and self-directive in using the foreign language to increase their own knowledge?
   8. Are there planned-in-advance activities which are adaptable to individual needs and interests as the unit develops?
   9. Do students have an opportunity to suggest and engage in foreign language activities not included in the original plan?
   10. Have sufficient student study aids, source materials, and references in the foreign language been made available?
   11. Does the teacher have necessary references and resource materials for his own use?

E. The Evaluation of Individual Growth
   1. Are all objectives, linguistic and ideational, evaluated?
   2. Do students engage in self-evaluation?

F. General Features of Unit Planning and Construction
   1. Is the unit a unified whole designed to further foreign language communication skills through meaningful content?
   2. Are activities of the unit in agreement with sound principles of learning?
   3. Are the activities realistic and do they embody lifelike use of language?
   4. Is the length of the unit determined by the extent, variety, and complexity of the learning activities essential to the realization of the objectives?
   5. Is the unit correlated with other foreign language learning units and learning in other subject areas?

Content for Level V and Level VI (The Nine Year Program)

Level V and Level VI foreign language learners have a rich backgrs may of formal and informal learning which the foreign language teacherents will utilize in building units of instruction. More and more of these studenature as be able to appreciate the contributions of the past in art and literat world. well as understand past historical events which shaped our present mporary At the same time, of course, they retain an intense interest in contem civilization.

In Level V and VI the accent should be on literature and civilizacter de- Some emphasis should be placed on literary style, setting, and charact literary velopment. Biographical data about the author and his place in the lite place scene should be sought out and discussed. Students should attempt tegrounds. works in their historical context by study of social and cultural backgr through Teachers should seek to lead students to cross cultural understandings th literature.

Learnings will come from readings and from other sources as stgraphy, investigate such areas as art, science, music, geography, economic geog customs, and history.

Contributions of the foreign culture to America are noted as well as A are the can contributions to the foreign country. Also important to note ar emistry, foreign culture's contributions in physics, usually Level V, and in chem usually Level VI, as well as notable achievements in mathematics.

Teachers should be especially alert to provide opportunities for st ey can to engage in special interest projects. Students must learn that they ge ma- satisfy some of their needs for information through foreign languag terials.

The 16-17-year-old in English classes will begin to read intensively udies he extensively in some works of earlier eras. As a result of his social stud physics, will gain a background in world history. He is likely to be learning ph may be taking a course in speech and/or a number of business subjects. He m singing in the choir or playing in the high school band.

The foreign language programs, indeed the whole educational progra subject benefit when foreign language learnings complement learnings in other s areas. Possible content for Level V study includes the following:

1. Current Events
2. Contemporary Social and Political Problems
3. Major Literary Works
4. History, or some elements of history, studied through the foreign ign language
5. Foreign Contributions in Music and Art
6. Foreign Contributions in Science and Mathematics
7. Independent Readings in Fiction and Non-fiction

A number of units suggested in other Minnesota subject-matter g guides should be examined by foreign language teachers who wish to relate fo foreign language class content to other student studies. Such units are the follow llowing:

Social Studies[6]

Impact of Other Nations on the United States
The Pressure of Population Upon Resources

[6] See Minnesota State Guides for Language Arts and Social Studies.

Language Arts[6]

Enjoying Humor
The Search for the Good Life
The Role of the Press

The Level VI student, now 17-18 years of age, will be studying world literature and/or English literature, chemistry, mathematics, and social studies. He may be learning business skills. In addition he may be in extra-curricular activities and/or be employed part time.

Suitable content includes the following:

1. Elements of Formal Grammar in the Foreign Language
2. Understanding Literature — intensive study of major literary works
3. Current Events
4. Contemporary Problems
5. Business and Social Correspondence
6. The World of Work
7. Independent Reading of Fiction
8. Independent Research

Teachers may also examine guides in other subject areas for unit subjects with which they may correlate their work. Some such units are the following:

Language Arts[7]

The Drama
Motion Pictures
Understanding the World at Work
Influence of Environment on Personality and Thought as revealed in novels by authors of various nationalities
Developing a Personal Philosophy
What Shall I Read?

Social Studies[7]

Understanding Ourselves and Others as Individuals
Learning to Live Successfully as a Member of a Family in the United States
Being an Effective Citizen in Our Democracy
Living in an Industrialized Society
America, Land of Many Peoples
Problems in Man's Search for Peace

A wide range of materials will be necessary to provide variety and depth to the Level V and VI programs. Such materials are:

Class sets of novels, short story collections, and anthologies
Foreign language grammar books
Foreign language newspapers and magazines
Foreign language history texts
Feature films and short films in the foreign language
Foreign language reference books, such as dictionaries, atlases, and an encyclopedia
Foreign language recordings reflecting regional dialect differences and differences in style appropriate to various speech situations

[7] *Ibid.*

The above materials should be selected from those suggested in the Modern Language Association's *Selected List of Materials* and the yearly bulletin of the Advanced Placement Program. Texts and references in the foreign language can be chosen from among those used in schools of the foreign land.

Activities

Many activities suitable for Levels V and VI have been suggested earlier for Levels III and IV. Some particularly suitable activities are:

1. Listening to recordings and viewing films on which a variety of regional dialects appear
2. Listening to recordings and reviewing films which present speech appropriate to different situations and which demonstrate both sexes using language characteristically
3. Making individual and group reports. Group discussions. Group work should be conducive to increasing student initiative and group planning. Examples: a report on a novel, poem, play, or movie; a discussion on the life and philosophy of a writer, a critical description of a work of art, an example of artistic style, an evaluation of the work of a composer
4. Practice in using speech appropriate to different situations
5. Learning to make sophisticated use of school and community libraries for satisfying class assignments
6. Reading many kinds of materials with special attention to historical, sociological, and political background and to writing style
7. Writing various kinds of letters, social and business
8. Writing summaries of literary works, films, and recordings
9. Writing critiques, interpretations, and evaluations of literature, art, and music studied
10. Writing research papers on subjects of the student's choice
11. Writing of original student poems and short stories
12. Paying attention in oral and written production to style; nuances of language, as well as expression of thought
13. For at least some students practice in oral and written translation into English from the foreign language and vice versa with attention to accurate rendering of style

Sequence B (The Six Year Program) for Grades 7-12

In the course of the six years of Sequence B the student has a cumulative and progressive learning experience that can provide him with good listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. He also has an opportunity to gain a good understanding of the foreign culture. Furthermore, if he wishes, the student may begin the study of a second foreign language in the senior high school as he continues to perfect his command of the first foreign language.

Students who begin the six-year sequence should under normal circumstances continue in one language through grade 12. They should be told in the beginning that language learning is a long process and they may have to be reminded from time to time that it requires years of effort.

As in the nine-year program, provision must be made for a carefully designed sequential development of foreign language skills. This sequential development will generally be best accomplished by the adoption of a basic integrated commercial course plus supplementary materials.

The Junior High School Child As A Language Learner

See Sequence A Level II for a description of the characteristics of the junior high school child.

Objectives of the Junior High Program (The Six Year Program)

Along with the over-all objectives of the six year sequence, the junior high school foreign language program has more limited goals which must be defined.

General Objectives

1. Develop positive attitudes toward foreign language learning and toward people who speak foreign languages
2. Develop an understanding of how a language is learned
3. Develop an understanding of the nature of language
4. Develop an understanding of the life of the early adolescent in the foreign country with special emphasis on alerting the learner to cross-cultural differences

Specific Linguistic Objectives

1. Aural understanding — Develop the ability to understand what an educated native says when he is enunciating carefully and using structures and vocabulary that the student has learned in the foreign language class
2. Speaking — Develop the ability to talk on simple prepared topics, for example, classroom situations without obvious faltering and to use the common everyday expressions necessary for everyday life in the foreign country, speaking with good pronunciation and intonation
3. Reading — Develop the ability to read without translation, fiction and non-fiction chosen to appeal to the junior high school child and especially graded for the beginning learner
4. Writing — Develop the ability to write correctly, simple controlled compositions such as reports, friendly letters, and skits, dealing with topics studied in class, especially those having to do with daily life

Content of Level I, Sequence B (The Six Year Program) Grades 7-8

Material chosen as the subject matter for junior high school foreign language learning must first of all be interesting to the learner. It is a truism that no appreciable learning will result if the learner does not want to learn. Suitable subjects for units of work in the junior high school are the following:

1. School Life — incidents dealing with learning activities, classroom management, housekeeping chores, and school connected out-of-class activities
2. Family Life — eating meals, performing chores, listening to records, and watching television
3. Community Life — using public transportation, shopping, learning about the adult world at work, asking directions
4. Recreation — going to or giving parties, vacationing, traveling, enjoying seasonal recreation, celebrating holidays, visiting art galleries and museums, going to the movies, enjoying hobbies and games
5. Sports — participating in sports and enjoying them as a spectator
6. Individual activities — getting up, dressing, practicing good personal hygiene
7. Adventure — discussing tall tales, stories of exploration, mystery stories, and exploits of heroic figures
8. Reading — reading and discussing fables, animal anecdotes, biography, history, and humorous anecdotes and stories

Dialogues

Dialogues based on everyday situations typical for the youngster of 12-13 years, provide appropriate material for learning audio-lingual skills through mimicry-memorization and variation. They also are suitable for beginning reading and writing practice when these latter skills are introduced.

Dialogues in Level I should be relatively short. Individual utterances should probably not run over six to eight syllables and dialogues should probably not be longer than eight to ten lines in length.

Component parts of dialogue material for a typical unit will be:

1. The basic dialogue or basic sentences for mimicry-memorization

2. The dialogue adaptation or variation which makes minor changes in the basic dialogue to make it fit different situations
3. The directed dialogues which enable the teacher to elicit utterances learned from basic dialogues
4. Response drills which provide a stimulus statement or question calling for a given response
5. Recombination dialogues which re-use utterances in new combinations to form new dialogues
6. Pattern drills for practicing substitution and variation within basic sentences

See Level I, Sequence A, *Drills*, for examples of the above.

Techniques for Teaching Dialogues

See "Techniques for Teaching Dialogues," Level I, Sequence A, "Longer Dialogues."

Other Materials

The junior high school child like the child in elementary school can benefit from occasional exposure to narratives and descriptions. See "Narratives and Descriptions," Level I, Sequence A, for suggestions. In addition see "Songs, Rhymes, and Games," for a discussion of the role they can play in language learning. However, the particular subject matter of the narratives and descriptions must be suitable to the maturity of the 7th grader as opposed to the 4th and 5th grader. Songs, rhymes, and games will be those appropriate to the twelve-year-old rather than the nine-year-old child. Ideally those chosen will be the ones enjoyed by youngsters of a similar age in the foreign country.

Structure

In Sequence B, the Level I program will provide considerable opportunity for drilling elements of language structure. Dialogue adaptations, directed dialogues, response drill and recombination dialogues will all be used to give the student practice in variation of language patterns. In addition, substitution and transformation drills will be used to further focus on particular learning difficulties. Pattern drills are best used for only short periods of the class hour, five to ten minutes. They are effectively used to drill a new structure or to remedy faulty student learning when it reveals itself in oral and written production. Student attention will lag and learning will not ordinarily occur if students are allowed to become hypnotized by the overlong chanting of substitution and transformation drills.

Junior high school students can also benefit by engaging in short, five to ten minute class discussions of the grammar they have been practicing in various drills. Generally students can be led to make their own generalizations about aspects of grammar. When discussing grammar, teachers should distinguish between oral and written grammar. Grammar discussions dealing with spoken language should deal with the real phenomena of oral communication.

Reading

Like his elementary school brothers and sisters the junior high school pupil probably should have an initial period of purely audio-lingual instruction. During this period pupils will concentrate on listening to native and near native speakers and attempt to imitate pronunciation and intonation. Orthography of the new language will not be introduced as pupils direct every attention to correct reproduction of new sounds and combinations of sounds. No definite time can be set for the introduction of reading. Generally, it can be said that reading may be introduced when using the written language will not seriously disturb good habits of pronunciation, phrasing, and stressing. Obviously then the orthography for languages with written symbols entirely different from English may be introduced relatively soon after the second language learning begins. Such an orthography will not confuse the student by demanding sounds different from the ones the student habitually uses with symbols. The time lag may be shorter for Spanish than French because the Spanish spelling is less confusing for the student. In the final analysis the teacher herself must decide when her students can begin to read without seriously impairing oral skills.

When reading begins, some drop in oral accuracy may be expected. To minimize the deterioration of speaking skill students will begin to read material they have already practiced orally, and such reading will be reinforced by choral reading after the teacher or a taped voice.

See Reading, Level I, Sequence A, for additional suggestions regarding teaching techniques.

Writing

Copying of a dialogue and other unit material may begin immediately after the student learns to read the text. The child should be expected to write only material which he can read. Besides copying, the beginning student may be assigned other simple writing tasks. They include filling in a missing word or phrase in a sentence, working crossword puzzles, unscrambling jumbled sentences, labeling maps, charts, showcases, and bulletin board displays.

After practice in copying, students may be asked to write the dialogue material from dictation. The teacher will want to insist upon accuracy in capitalization, punctuation, spelling, and paragraphing during the copying-dictation period in order to fix habits which will carry over into the freer writing activities of later levels.

Level I students may also be assigned short descriptions and narratives. Such topics as "My Home," "My Family," "My Day," or "An Excursion to the Beach," are suitable. In Level I such assignments should be carefully modeled after a reading assignment already studied and will usually follow oral presentation of the description or narrative.

Culture

In Level I the first objective is learning a limited amount of the foreign language. This task alone is a sizable one without taking considerable time for learning about the foreign culture. Normally a systematized treatment of cultural contrasts between the student's own culture and the foreign culture should wait until at least Level II. During Level I the student will be applying the foreign language to familiar situations in his everyday life.

However, even in Level I some time may be devoted to developing an understanding that mankind has developed different ways of living and communicating. Occasional films in English may be used to begin acquainting the student with characteristics of the foreign country. Reading books in English which have their settings in the foreign land will serve the same purpose. Occa-

sional reading and discussion of the influences of the foreign culture on American society through such things as holidays, customs, and contributions of famous people will prove beneficial as well.

Further appreciation of the foreign culture is developed through learning in the foreign language, authentic sayings, idioms, rhymes, proverbs, games, and songs, that are enjoyed by children of a comparable age in the foreign country.

Homework

Unlike most youngsters in Level I, Sequence A, junior high school students in Sequence B can normally be assigned some home study activities. Home study records, workbooks, and teacher-made reading and writing assignments can contribute to language learning at the same time that they teach responsibility for independent learning.

Content of Level II, Sequence B (The Six Year Program) Grade 9

The broad topical units which were suggested for Level I are generally satisfactory for Level II. However, the emphasis will begin to be on more reading as students increasingly use reading assignments as a starting point for oral and written work. They will continue, however, to listen to tape and teacher-presented material as a source for such activities as well. Simple films in the foreign language should be used as often as they will contribute to achieving the objectives of the course.

Material heard, viewed, and read will deal increasingly with aspects of the foreign culture, constantly contrasting it with the student's own way of life. Material chosen must appeal to the youngsters. It should deal with contemporary life and avoid the quaint. It should deal with aspects of the life of foreign youngsters of the same age as our 9th graders, that is, 14 years.

Students in Level II will benefit from reading and discussing the following:

1. Simple non-fiction dealing with geography, climate, population, products, music, art, customs, and history
2. Simple biography and historical anecdotes
3. Dialogues, simple plays, tales, legends, poetry, and friendly letters

Listening, speaking, and reading activities will all be chosen to foster increasing independence on the part of the learner. He will be encouraged to use context clues in understanding spoken and written language and to use analogy in building utterances that vary somewhat from the model he has memorized earlier. All activities will stress vocabulary development to a greater degree than in Level I.

Use of English

See Level II, Sequence A

Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing in Level II, Sequence B (The Six Year Program)

See Level II, Sequence A for a discussion of activities in the four skills.

Grammar In Level II (The Six Year Program)

In Level I, Sequence B, students will have used materials especially written to deal systematically with problems of language structure. They will have made some generalizations about how the foreign language works in contrast to English. Level II materials will continue to be structurally oriented and students should be encouraged to make up rules of grammar based on their observations of the grammar system. A few minutes at the end of a class period should suffice for students and teachers to discuss the workings of language as demonstrated in a day's drills. Such brief grammar sessions should be held for what they will contribute to the student's control of the language. They should never stretch into lengthy discussions of grammar for its own sake. However, text materials or teacher-prepared materials should contain generalizations about structure and students ought to know how to find and use their rules when they need to. *See "Grammar in Level II, The Nine Year Sequence," for additional discussion.*

Culture In Level II (The Six Year Program)

See Culture in Level II, The Nine Year Sequence

Materials for Sequence B

See "Integrated Materials for the Junior High School," Sequence A

LEVELS III, IV, V

The Senior High School Student, Grades 10, 11, 12

See "The Senior High School Student as a Language Learner" — Sequence A

Objectives for the Senior High School Levels III-IV-V (The Six Year Program)

The senior high school program in the six year sequence will normally allow the student to finish intermediate and advanced Levels III, IV, and V in the foreign language. It will stress language training and acculturation through exposure to elements of the foreign culture typically part of an older teen-ager's experience in the foreign land.

Objectives for Levels III, IV, V

General Objectives

1. Develop an understanding of the nature of language — its changing character, how it reflects culture
2. Continue to foster an interest in language and language learning
3. Develop some appreciation of the role that the foreign language can play in achieving the general goals of education — developing saleable skills, promoting worthwhile use of leisure time, for example
4. Develop considerable cross-cultural insight because of extended exposure to the foreign culture through the foreign language

Specific Linguistic Objectives

1. Develop the ability to communicate with ease in everyday situations that are typical for the young adult
2. Develop skill in reading for different purposes the many kinds of materials usually read by the average student of his age in the foreign culture
3. Develop insights into adult life in the foreign country with special emphasis on alerting the learner to cross-cultural differences between the foreign culture and his own
4. Develop an ability to translate with a feeling for correct interpretation from one language to the other, material within the scope of his knowledge and experience
5. Begin advanced work in conversation, syntax, composition, and mature

literature on the basis of a sound fundamental knowledge of the foreign language and culture

Review

The beginning of senior high school Level III, is an important place for systematic review before proceeding on the entirely new material in Sequence B. In Level III students with varying backgrounds will be coming together for the first time in the unfamiliar senior high school setting. The students may feel somewhat insecure. It will be the senior high school teacher's initial task to inspire student confidence and to identify and show up weaknesses that may exist in various student's language skills. The senior high school teacher should at no time criticize students or their former teachers for apparent gaps in the student's background. Critical comments of this kind can only frustrate and discourage the students. While it is the junior high school teacher's responsibility to prepare students for senior high school work, the senior high school teacher must take her students where they are and move ahead with them.

General Content for Level III (The Six Year Program)

See Level III, Sequence A, The Nine Year Sequence, including suggested "Unit Topics" and "Appropriate Materials."

Level III — Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing Activities

See Level III, Sequence A, for detailed discussion of appropriate activities for Level III.

General Content for Level IV (The Six Year Program)

The Level IV student in Sequence B is a junior in the senior high school. His interests and background are directing him toward adult television, movies, and readings in fiction and non-fiction. He has an evergrowing understanding of the world present and past. While he is usually an enthusiastic participant in school activities this student is already looking beyond high school to college and/or a career.

As an 11th grader the student will normally be studying American literature, American history, physics, and mathematics. He may in addition, be playing in the school band or orchestra, participating in one or more other extracurricular activities, or working at a part-time job. Foreign language learnings will be more meaningful for the student if units of study are planned to relate to students' interests and activities at this level. Interests may be summarized as follows:

1. School and college life
2. Sports
3. Mature adult adventure
4. Travel
5. Boy-girl relationships
6. Politics and world affairs
7. Social problems
8. Science

Suitable content includes the following:

1. Contemporary literature read both in and out of class
2. Current events
3. History — some parallel units that correlate with American history courses
4. Science — particularly important physicists and concepts which they formulated
5. Travel — including some situational dialogues, readings, and films about some areas in the foreign country
6. The foreign language source and development
7. The foreign heritage — great scholars, artists, writers, composers, monuments

Foreign language teachers who wish to teach units related to those taught by colleagues in other departments should investigate what units will be taught by 11th grade teachers, particularly in English and social studies. See Minnesota State Department of Education, Guides for Language Arts and Social Studies for suggested 11th grade units. Levels V and VI, Sequence A, of this guide lists some titles that seem particularly appropriate.

Materials

Materials to be used in Level IV will not vary greatly in kind from those used in Level III. They will, however, be more difficult in the ideas they present and in the language they use. Suitable materials include:

1. Recordings of radio programs, newscasts, plays, poetry, music, and narrations
2. Filmstrips, slides, and sound films
3. Plays, novels, short stories, poems, and articles from newspapers, magazines, and encyclopedias

Individual differences in student abilities will require that teachers individualize assignments as much as possible. Teachers may inform themselves regarding student interests and capitalize on their interests to stimulate learning. Information about student interests can be gathered through questionnaires or class discussions.

Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing Activities for Level IV (The Six Year Program)

See Level IV, Sequence A, the Nine Year sequence for an extensive discussion of listening, speaking, reading, and writing activities.

Units of Instruction

See "Developing a Unit of Foreign Language Instruction."
Refer to Sequence A, Level IV.

Content for Level V, Sequence B (The Six Year Program)

Though Sequence B students will not usually reach the same level of learning as those who finish Sequence A, the content used at this level is very similar. That is, there is a difference in degree rather than kind. Therefore, the description of content for Levels V and VI in Sequence A, The Nine Year Sequence, is appropriate for Sequence B students as well.

In many respects the four-year-sequence is similar to the nine year and six year sequences. There can, for example, be no compromise with the effort to develop all four language skills. Furthermore, in general, the appropriate techniques for levels of instruction in sequences A, B, or C will be similar.

However, some differences will necessarily exist for a number of reasons. In the first place the age of the beginner in sequence C determines that he will not want to learn from the same materials as the younger child. While the same general subject area, school life, may be appropriate to Level I in any sequence, specific dialogue situations and readings must be appropriate to the interests of the learner of a given age.

Besides the difference in *interests* due to maturity, one must mention the difference in *ability* due to maturation. The older child has had a much richer background of experience than the 4th or 7th grader. His formal and informal education make him able to understand concepts which would be unintelligible to the younger child.

Generally he is a better student. That is to say, the older student will have acquired study skills which enable him to do much learning without constant teacher direction. He will expect home study assignments and can usually be expected to complete them if he judges that the assignments are reasonable. He will be better able to learn in the language laboratory. His background in formal grammar while sketchy, may include several years of study in his English classes. He may be getting some training in grammar as he begins his foreign language study. If he has already been studying a second language, he will bring considerable knowledge of foreign language study techniques to the study of the second foreign language.

Because of the maturity of the Sequence C student, he can learn much more in a shorter time than beginning and intermediate students in other sequences. He can form generalizations and apply them to oral and written language. However, he needs, just as younger students do, considerable practice devoted to habit formation in the areas of pronunciation, intonation, grammar, and syntax. Knowing about language is helpful to him, but it is not a substitute for constant intensive practice in using language.

Reading instruction, while it should not be allowed to interfere with development of oral skills, must begin early in Sequence C and must be more intensified than in Sequence A or B. Rapid development of reading skills is important because of the Level C students need for mature material. In addition, one cannot ignore the short time before possible use of language in college and university courses.

Because the Sequence C student is exposed to the foreign language over a shorter span of years than students in sequences A and B, he will not get the experience of "growing up" in the foreign culture to the degree that other students do. He can and should, however, "grow up" in the four-year program to the extent that this is possible in a relatively intensive course of study which begins when the learner is already 14 years old. At each level the program should attempt to treat some subjects which would typically be of interest to the youngster of corresponding age in the foreign land. Obviously, the cultural objectives will be more limited than those in the other sequences.

The Student in Sequence C as A Language Learner

Students beginning foreign language learning in grade nine and continuing study in grades 10-12 are best described in the section "The Senior High School Student as a Language Learner." However, teachers are reminded that many problems of articulation have arisen in the past when students from junior high school programs have been enrolled in Level II high school classes with older students who had begun study as sophomores or juniors. Part of this problem has arisen because it was assumed that the ninth grader could learn exactly the same material in the same way as senior high school students. As a general rule, he is less mature, less able to work intensively and has different interests. He tends to be more lively and enthusiastic. Teachers responsible for Level I instruction in grade nine will note that much of the material under "The Junior High School Student as a Language Learner" is applicable to students in these classes.

Objectives of The Four Year Program Sequence C

The four year sequence of foreign language study provides an opportunity for the learner to develop a good command of the four language skills. This learning can later be extended through college work, other study, or foreign travel and foreign residence. Objectives are the following:

General Objectives:

1. Develop positive attitudes toward foreign language learning and toward people who speak foreign languages
2. Develop an understanding of how language is learned
3. Develop an understanding of the nature of language — its changing character, how it reflects culture
4. Develop some appreciation of the role that the foreign language can play in achieving the general goals of education, developing valuable skills, promoting worthwhile use of leisure time
5. Develop an understanding of the life of the adolescent and adult in the foreign country with special emphasis on alerting the learner to cross-cultural differences

Specific Linguistic Objectives:

1. Develop the ability to understand a native speaker when he is speaking at normal speed on a general topic

2. Develop the ability to communicate with a fair amount of skill in everyday situations typical for the young adult
3. Develop skill in reading for different purposes a number of kinds of materials typically read by the average youth of his age in the foreign culture
4. Begin advanced work in conversation, syntax, composition, and mature literature on the basis of sound fundamental knowledge of the language and culture
5. Begin at an advanced level to develop an ability to translate with a feeling for correct interpretation from one language to the other that material which is within the scope of one's knowledge and experience

Content of Level I-II in Sequence C (The Four Year Program)
Grades 9-10

Each sequence of foreign language study must be carefully tailored to the interests and talents of the age group for which it is intended. Thus, while the general topics treated in units of Sequence C do not differ greatly from those of Sequences A and B, the way in which they are treated will differ. Suitable topics for units of work in Sequence C are the following:

1. School Life — incidents dealing with learning activities, classroom management, housekeeping chores, and school connected out-of-class activities
2. Family Life — eating meals, doing household chores, listening to records, and watching television
3. Community Life — using public transportation, shopping, learning about the world at work, asking directions
4. Recreation — going to or giving parties, vacationing, traveling, enjoying seasonal recreation, celebrating holidays, visiting art galleries and museums, and going to the movies, enjoying hobbies and games
5. Sports — participating in sports and enjoying them as a spectator
6. Individual activities — getting up, dressing, practicing good personal hygiene
7. Adventure — reading and discussing stories of exploration, mystery stories, tales of intrigue, and other adventure stories
8. Reading — reading and discussing stories which deal with the problems of young people and adults

Dialogues in Levels I and II

Dialogues based on everyday situations common for youngsters of 14-15 years provide appropriate material for learning audio-lingual skills through mimicry-memorization and variation. Dialogue text is also suitable for beginning reading and writing practice when students begin to read and write.

Component parts of a typical unit will be:

1. The basic dialogue or basic sentence for mimicry-memorization
2. Adaptations or variations which make minor changes in the basic dialogue to make it fit different situations
3. Directed dialogues which enable the teacher or student leaders to elicit utterances learned from basic dialogues
4. Response drills which provide a stimulus statement or question calling for a given response. Questions may relate to the basic dialogue or to the life of students in the classroom
5. Recombination dialogues which re-use utterances in new combinations to form new dialogues
6. Pattern drills for practicing substitution and variation with basic sentences
7. Narrative re-combinations of dialogue materials to give students practice in reading narrative style

Sample basic dialogue

Robert: Hi, Bill! Where are you going?
William: Hi, Rob, I have to go to the store for a loaf of bread.
Robert: Good. I have to go to the store, too.
William: Say, who's that cute girl. I never saw her before.
Robert: That's Sandra Johnson. She just moved in. Would you like to meet her?
William: You bet I would.
Robert: Hi, Sandy. This is Bill Swanson. He lives in the next block.
Sandra: Hi, Bill. I see you have a good Irish name like mine.
William: Yes, I have. We're going to the store. Are you walking that way?
Sandra: Yes, I have to go to the store, too.
William: Great! Let's all go together.

Sample Dialogue Adaptation or Variation

Douglas: Hi, Peter! Where are you going?
Peter: Hi, Doug. I have to ride up to the station. My train need air. Do you want to ride along?
Douglas: No, I can't. We're going to eat lunch in a few minutes.
Mrs. Anderson: Doug! Lunch is ready. Oh, hello, Peter. How are you?
Peter: I'm fine, Mrs. Anderson. Are you feeling better?
Mrs. Anderson: Yes, I am. Thank you, Peter.
Peter: That's good. Well, I'd better go now. Goodbye, Mrs. Anderson. So long, Doug.
Mrs. Anderson: Goodbye, Peter.
Douglas: So long.

Sample Directed Dialogue

Teacher: Thomas, greet John and ask how he is.
Pupil I: Hi, John. How are you?
Pupil II: Hi, Bill. I'm fine. How are you?
Pupil I: I'm fine, too, thanks.
Teacher: John, ask Mary where she's going.
Pupil II: Mary, where are you going?
Pupil III: I have to go to the office.

Sample Response Drill

Teacher: Hello, John. Where are you going?
Pupil I: I'm going to the library.
Teacher: Maria, are you going to the library?
Pupil II: No, I'm going to the office.
Teacher: Where is Bill going?
Pupil II: He's going home.

Sample Recombination Dialogue

Pupil I: Hello, Delores. Where are you going?
Pupil II: Hi, Sue. I'm going to the beauty parlor. I have a two o'clock appointment.
Pupil I: I'll walk along. I'm going to the bakery.
Pupil II: Who's that cute boy across the street?
Pupil I: That's George Nelson. He's a new boy in the neighborhood.
Pupil II: I'd like to meet him.
Pupil I: I'll introduce you sometime. We don't have time now.

Pattern Drills

See the section on "Drills" for examples of pattern drills.

Recombination Narrative

Bill is leaving the house on his way to the store when his friend Bob comes by. Bob has to go to the store, too, and so they set out together. They go only a few steps when Bob notices a pretty blond girl sitting on the steps of a house across the street. Bill waves to her, smiles, and says hello, but when Bob says he would like to meet the girl, Bill tells him they do not have time and hurries him away. Both Bob and the girl wonder why Bill is in such a hurry.

Techniques for Teaching Dialogues

The basic dialogues are introduced by the teacher speaking at normal speed using normal linking and intonation, or by playing a tape recording of native speakers presenting the dialogue. Meaning may be established through actions, gestures, facial expressions, pictures, and real objects. If English is used for clarification, the English "equivalents" for the basic utterances should not be literal translations but natural English utterances which would be used in a similar situation.

When the entire class has practiced repeating the dialogue utterances after the teacher model, smaller and smaller groups within the class are called upon for repetition; and finally individual responses are called for.

Next, dialogues are practiced with the teacher taking one role while the whole class takes the other. Again, gradually the size of the group is reduced until one student has the role opposite the teacher. When the individuals can respond accurately and confidently both in chorus and individually, the parts should be reversed so that the students learn all dialogue utterances. Eventually, students can take both roles without the teacher. After a dialogue is learned, it is repeatedly dramatized by different members of the class. Dramatization provides variety in class activities and involves the learner physically as well as mentally, thus strengthening the association between meaning and language.

Frequently, with longer utterances the teacher will have to make a point of breaking them down into elements which students can reproduce. Ordinarily, utterances should be broken down into meaningful phrases about six syllables in length. These shorter phrases are modeled by the teacher and repeated by the learners beginning with the last phrase of the utterance and adding additional preceding elements until the utterance is complete. While most repetition will be choral in nature, occasionally individual repetition should also be called for. Sample Utterance Buildup:

Teacher: I have a cat, but I don't have a dog.
Teacher: .....I don't have a dog.
Pupils: .....I don't have a dog.
Teacher: .....but I don't have a dog.
Pupils: .....but I don't have a dog.
Teacher: I have a cat, but I don't have a dog.
Pupils: I have a cat but I don't have a dog.

Once a dialogue has been overlearned there should be frequent re-entry of the utterances into new material to make the utterances meaningful. Learning materials chosen should provide for such re-entry in later units. Games, songs, or simple narratives should be chosen for class activities when they offer an opportunity to use familiar language in new ways.

Narratives and Descriptions

Narratives and descriptions can provide listening and speaking practice which is valuable for the learner. A narrative is a story relating a progression of events. An example of a simple narrative is the following account of daily routine.

Sample Narrative:

I get up at eight o'clock.
I wash my hands and face and comb my hair.
I eat breakfast.
I go to school.

Such narratives can first be presented by tape, filmstrip, film, or television or by the teacher with the help of a set of pictures.

In Level I, simple stories from the foreign country may next be related by the teacher or a taped voice. Such stories should be chosen according to what they will contribute to language learning and knowledge of the foreign culture as well as the stories' appeal to the learner. The gradual introduction of narratives also has the virtue of preparing the student for the language of narrative prose as opposed to the language of speech.

While such storytelling should not be overdone, it can provide a welcome change of pace in class activities. A definite assignment should accompany such a listening activity. That is, students should be called on to answer questions about the story orally or in writing. Students may be charged with preparing questions to ask each other about the story. They may write a summary of the story in the first months in English and later on in the foreign language.

A description enumerates the qualities of something. An object such as a person, a house, or the classroom provides an opportunity for description.

Sample description: My house is a big house in the city.
It is new and white.
It has a brown roof and large windows.

Initially, like narratives, descriptions may be presented through a tape program, film, television, and by the classroom teacher. Eventually the students may be asked to present their own descriptions of pictures and objects they bring to school.

Songs, Rhymes, and Games

Songs, rhymes, and games may be taught to provide highly motivated re-entry of vocabulary and structure. The melody and rhythm of songs help establish good pronunciation and intonation. Rhymes and simple poems are also used for this purpose. Ninth graders will particularly enjoy songs that require some physical activity such as hand clapping. Games provide a change of pace for practice of new expressions and for review. Games chosen must actually provide opportunity for worthwhile language use rather than demanding only physical activity. Unless the game is planned as an extended learning activity, it should introduce little new vocabulary and no new structures.

Structure

In Sequence C the Level I and II program will provide considerable opportunity for drilling elements of language structure. Dialogues, dialogue adaptations, directed dialogues, response drills, and re-combination dialogues are all used to give the student practice in variation of language patterns. In addition, substitution and transformation drills will be used to focus specifically on aspects of structure which are especially difficult for the American learning the particular foreign language. Pattern drills are best used for relatively short periods, 5-15 minutes, of the class hour. They are used to drill a new structure or to remedy faulty student learning when it reveals itself in oral and written activities. Teachers should watch for evidence of flagging interest during pattern practice and change to other activities when the drills are no longer producing the desired results.

Students in Sequence C will also benefit from short class discussions of the grammar that they have been practicing in the various unit activities. Often students can be led to make their own generalizations about aspects of grammar. When discussing grammar, teachers should carefully distinguish between oral and written grammar. Grammar discussions dealing with spoken language should deal with the real phenomena of oral communication.

Vocabulary

Introduction of lexical items will be carefully limited in Level I as students devote most of their attention to phonology, morphology, and syntax. Instead of learning many new words every day, students will learn a limited number but will practice them intensively in listening, speaking, reading, and writing drills.

Reading

Considerable recent controversy has centered around the question of whether an extended audio-lingual period should precede the introduction of reading and writing. One thing seems sure, the profession is generally agreed that some pre-reading is advisable and that for a considerable part of Level I much of the basic material should be introduced by listening and repeating rather than reading. Pupils should be able to concentrate on listening to native and near native speakers and reproducing the new sounds and combinations of sounds. No definite time can be set for the introduction of reading to students. Generally one may say that reading should be introduced when seeing the written language will not seriously disturb learning and maintaining acceptable habits of pronunciation, phrasing, and stressing. As noted in other sequences, the orthography for languages using written symbols entirely different from English may be introduced relatively soon after the sound language learning begins. Such orthography will not confuse the student by providing him with a familiar symbol and demanding sounds different from the ones that he habitually uses with the symbol. The time lag may be shorter for Spanish than for French because the Spanish spelling is less confusing for the students. In the final analysis the teacher herself must decide when her students can begin to read without seriously impairing oral skills.

When reading begins, some drop in oral accuracy may be expected. To minimize the deterioration of speaking skill, students will begin to read material that they have already practiced orally. Such oral reading will be reinforced by choral reading after the teacher or a taped voice. One technique in beginning lessons is to write a dialogue on the chalkboard. The teacher then reads an utterance after which the class reads the utterances in chorus. After the entire dialogue has been read, the students are then asked to read words, phrases, and utterances which the teacher selects out of their normal order in the dialogue. After mass mimicry practice, individuals are called upon to read utterances and individual words. The teacher will have to check carefully to be sure that students are reading rather than quoting the dialogue material from memory. Some students may find it easier to try to guess at utterances rather than looking closely at the written symbols. Such students need to be helped to see the importance of learning to read the new language well. The teacher may have to work patiently but firmly to insure that these students do learn to read.

Writing

Beginning writing should first of all mean carefully copying dialogue material that has been heard, spoken, and read. Such copying should begin almost simultaneously with learning to read, for copying forces the student to observe each word carefully in order to reproduce it. Other simple writing activities include filling in a missing word or phrase in a sentence, working crossword puzzles, unscrambling sentences, and writing from dictation. When students take a dictation test, the teacher should insist on accuracy in spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and paragraphing. Without such insistence some students may think that many "idiosyncrasies" of foreign orthography are not important enough to learn.

Level I students may be assigned short descriptions and narratives. Such topics as "My House," "My Family," "My Day," or "An Excursion to the Beach," are suitable. In Level I such assignments should be carefully modeled after a dialogue or narrative passage already studied.

Students may also be asked to write answers to questions about dialogues and narratives or correct false statements about text content. Often the class should go through the assignment orally before attempting to write.

Culture

See "Culture" — Sequence B

Out-of-Class Assignments in Level I, Grade 9

Students in Sequence C are mature enough to benefit from considerable independent study. First, however, they need to be made acquainted with proper techniques of language learning. Once they have learned the techniques, the students can generally be depended on to complete learning assignments out-

side of school hours. Out-of-class assignments, of course, should make a real contribution to learning for students like teachers have much to do. Teachers should resist any tendency to assign busy work. The following activities are appropriate for Level I:

1. In the beginning weeks of the school year, before students learn to read and write in the foreign language they may read fiction and non-fiction in English about the foreign country.
2. Listening and speaking practice may be done independently in the language laboratory rather than during class periods when school schedules permit.
3. Mimicry-memorization can be practiced with homestudy records and tape recordings, preferably with those which accompany the text. However, other records may coordinate closely with classwork and also be appropriate for home use.
4. Listening can be practiced with records and tapes when recordings recombine utterances already learned into new dialogues and narratives. Simple recorded stories may be assigned for home study.
5. Copying portions of unit materials and other writing assignments suggested above can be completed as home work.

Level II, Sequence C (The Four Year Program)

While review is important at the beginning of each level, Level II in Sequence C will be crucial. Students will then be starting their senior high school years. Despite the best efforts of teachers to articulate their programs, students will inevitably come to Level II with some differences in background and may have to become accustomed to a new teacher as well as a new school.

The Level II teacher will do well to discuss the Level II program with students in the first days of class explaining how it will differ from Level I. At the same time she should review Level I work which will be particularly important to success in Level II. The review period should contain all of the various kinds of Level I activities in order that review include practice in all of the four skills. While students are gaining confidence and establishing a common base for Level II work, the teacher will be learning to know each student better as an individual. The teacher will then be able to effectively deal with the needs of each learner in the foreign language program.

For the most part the Level II program in Sequence C will resemble the program in Level II of Sequence B. The main difference to be kept in mind is that students in Sequence C will be one year older. They will be somewhat more mature and their school and out-of-school activities will be providing them with a different background of experiences.

Content of Level II, Sequence C (The Four Year Program)

See discussion under "Content of Level II, Sequence A, The Six Year Program.

Use of English

See Level II, Sequence A.

Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing In Level II, Sequence B (The Four Year Program)

See Level II, Sequence A for a discussion of Level II activities in the four skills.

Grammar in Level II

Refer to "Grammar in Level II, The Six Year Program."

Culture in Level II

See "Culture in Level II, The Nine Year Program."

Level III (The Four Year Program)

Refer to "Level III, Sequence A, The Nine Year Program," including suggested "Unit Topics," "Appropriate Materials," and "Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing Activities."

Level IV

The Level IV student in Sequence C is a 12th grader in the senior high school. He is likely to be active in school affairs, but at the same time he is increasingly concerned with life beyond high school, with starting college, or getting work. Interested in adult television, movies, and reading, the high school senior is concerned about political affairs, local, national, and international.

As a 12th grader, the student will normally be studying world literature, world problems, chemistry, and mathematics besides his foreign language. He may in addition be engaged in one or more extra-curricular activities or have part-time employment. Units of instruction in foreign language will be most successful for the student if they are related to students' activities and interests. Interests of the older student in senior high school include the following:

1. School and college life
2. The working world
3. Sports
4. Mature adult adventure
5. Travel
6. Adult romance
7. Social problems
8. Politics and world affairs
9. Science

Suitable content for Level IV includes the following:

1. Contemporary and occasional pieces of classical literature
2. Current events
3. Certain high points in the history of the foreign country
4. Readings which provide some indication of scientific achievements of the nationals of the foreign land
5. Travel, including some situational dialogues appropriate for travel plus readings and films about some areas in the foreign country
6. The foreign language, its source and development
7. The foreign heritage — great scholars, artists, writers, composers, and monuments

Foreign language programs will benefit in Level IV whenever teachers can relate their instruction to other learnings in the school curriculum. Students should be encouraged to refer to learnings from other classes in class discussions. Whenever possible students should get credit in other classes for foreign language readings which relate to work done in those classes. Students should be encouraged to undertake special interest projects involving research in for-

eign language materials. In short, students should be learning that the foreign language can be a tool for gaining information they need and want to know.

Materials

Materials in Level IV will not vary greatly in kind from those used in Level III. They will, however, be more difficult in the ideas they present and in the language they use. Suitable materials include:

1. Recordings of radio programs, newscasts, plays, poetry, music, and narratives
2. Filmstrips, slides, and sound films
3. Novels, plays, short stories, and poems, as well as articles from newspapers, magazines, and encyclopedias

Listening, Speaking, Reading, Writing Activities for Level IV (The Four Year Program)

Refer to "Level IV, Sequence A, The Nine Year Program" for a discussion of Level IV activities for improving the four skills.

Units of Instruction

See "Developing a Unit of Foreign Language Instruction."

Chapter V

DRILLS FOR CLASSROOM AND LABORATORY

The audio-lingual approach to language learning requires materials of a type not found in traditional textbooks. Such materials must be based on the language spoken by the educated person rather than the literary language. Effective use of these materials requires daily drill sessions designed to provide saturation practice particularly on conflict points; that is, areas of learning difficulty for the non-native. Drill exercises should at first be conducted in the classroom by the teacher. However, after being introduced by the teacher drills are then reinforced by the tape recorded materials. Tape drills provide the model for pronunciation, intonation, and language structure and permit practice in language manipulation.

Many excellent audio-lingual materials are now available from commercial sources. Teachers should examine these new language learning systems and select an appropriate course suited to the individual school situation. However, even the teacher using a traditional text can write and record audio-lingual drills for use with electro-mechanical equipment. For teachers using the modern course materials it may be advisable to develop additional recorded materials for more variety in the drill exercises and for the correction of learning problems which arise in the class.

Criteria for Evaluating

Whether the teacher is contemplating purchase of pre recorded materials or preparing his own recordings there are certain criteria to be observed.

Technical Considerations

1. Voice(s) used should be native or near native and, if possible, of the same age group
2. Rate of speech should approximate that of normal native speech
3. Pronunciation, enunciation, and intonation should be natural
4. Voice(s) should be pleasing to the ear
5. Tape voice(s) should be lively and enthusiastic
6. Sound should be undistorted. The tape should make sound discrimination easy for non-native learners
7. Volume level should be even
8. Any pauses on the tape should be long enough to permit student response but not so long as to slow the pace of the drill. Repeating time for the student varies from three seconds plus one repetition in the repetition type drill to three seconds plus two repetitions in the substitution and transformation type drills. Repetitions are given in the normal rate of speech
9. Repetition drills must be short; utterances for the beginning student should be within the seven to ten syllable limit in the case of familiar material, fewer syllables for unfamiliar material
10. Directions to students should be clear, brief, and include a sample with the correct response
11. Exercises should, if possible, contain a variety of voices to help avoid monotony and provide a variation of experiences
12. Only one problem at a time should be presented in a drill exercise. A practice exercise containing several problems is a testing exercise
13. Basically drills should be
    a) Three phase:
    MODEL UTTERANCE STUDENT RESPONSE CORRECT RESPONSE
    OR
    b) Four phase:
    MODEL UTTERANCE STUDENT RESPONSE CORRECT RESPONSE STUDENT REPETITION
14. Drills should emphasize the phonemic and structural contrasts between native and target language
15. Taped exercises should provide a judicious amount of variation to avoid monotony
16. Drills and pattern practices should be closely correlated with the specific classroom activity.
17. Taped drills should be useful and challenging to the learner

Types of Taped Drills

The following drills are of various types designed to give the student practice in the language skills. Although taped drills are particularly useful in strengthening the audio-lingual skills they do play a part in developing the reading and writing skills as well. Many of the drills adapt themselves for testing purposes even though they are designed for practice.

Repetition Drill

The repetition drill teaches correct pronunciation and intonation by providing a model for student imitation. This type of drill is also used for overlearning and memorizing the linguistic patterns and vocabulary of the target language. New materials, new patterns, and new vocabulary are introduced by the repetition drill. Since language is acquired through sound and rhythm the utterances must be brief to be retained by the ear.

Examples

Three Phase Drill

Model:
Why don't you come
to my party?

Response:
Why don't you come
to my party?
Why don't you come
to my party?

Correct Response:

Why don't you come
to my party?

Four Phase Drill

Model:

Why don't you come
to my party?

Correct Response:

Why don't you come
to my party?

Response:

Why don't you come
to my party?
Why don't you come
to my party?

Response:

Why don't you come
to my party?

Three Phase Backward Build-up Drill

Model:

Why don't you bring
Mary along to my party
tomorrow night?
Why don't you bring
Mary along to my party
tomorrow night?

— tomorrow night?

Correct Response:

— tomorrow night?

M:

— to my party

CR:

— to my party

M:
— to my party tomorrow night?

CR:

— to my party tomorrow night?

Response:

— tomorrow night?
— tomorrow night?

— to my party
— to my party

— to my party tomorrow night?
— to my party tomorrow night?

M:
— along

CR:

— along

M:
— along to my party
tomorrow night?

CR:
—along to my party
tomorrow night?

M:
—bring Mary

CR:

— bring Mary

M: — bring Mary along
to my party tomorrow night?

CR: — bring Mary along
to my party tomorrow night?

M:

Why don't you

CR: Why don't you

M:

Why don't you bring
Mary along to my party
tomorrow night?

— along
—along

—along to my party
tomorrow night?
— along to my party
tomorrow night?

— bring Mary
— bring Mary

— bring Mary along
to my party tomorrow night?
— bring Mary along
to my party tomorrow night?

Why don't you
Why don't you

Why don't you bring
Mary along to my party
tomorrow night?
Why don't you bring
Mary along to my party
tomorrow night?

CR:

Why don't you bring
Mary along to my party
tomorrow night?

The pattern drill develops the learner's oral command of the structures of the language. A good pattern drill utilizes the spoken language to focus attention on one structure at a time, giving the student extensive practice by using the structure in a carefully controlled context.

The patterns to be drilled in a pattern drill are presented first to the learner in a repetition drill. The pattern drill then tests his understanding of the structures by asking him to make appropriate changes according to the cue.

Transformation and Replacement (Substitution)

The most important drills are basically the transformation and replacement or substitution drills. Most drills are a combination or extension of both. In the replacement or substitution drill one word or structural item is substituted in the utterance. In the transformation drill one word or structural item is changed, often necessitating a change in word order.

Replacement (substitution):

Noun ⇄ *Pronoun*

Susie bought *a record.*
Susie bought *it.*

Noun ⇄ *Noun*

I want a *sandwich.*
I want a *cookie.*

Person-number ⇄ *Person-number*

I go to school.
They go to school.
You go to school.

We go to school.

Verb ⇄ *Verb*

I *see* the bird.
I *hear* the bird.

Transformation:

Singular ⇄ *Plural*

Susie bought a record*.*
Susie bought record*s.*

Gender ⇄ *Gender*

I know this act*or.*
I know this actr*ess.*
(rare in English)

Affirmative ⇄ *Negative*

I *go* to school.
I *don't go* to school.

Affirmative ⇄ *Interrogative*

I *go* to school.
Do I *go* to school?

Tense ⇄ *Tense*

She like*s* candy.
She like*d* candy.

In all of the following drills the number of utterances should be increased to seven or eight of each type.

ENGLISH	FRENCH	GERMAN	SPANISH
REPLACEMENT DRILL			
Replace the object with a pronoun:			
I have books. I have *them.*	J'ai des livres. J'*en* ai.	Ich habe die Bücher. Ich habe *sie.*	Tengo los libros. *Los* tengo.
Mary wrote the letter. Mary wrote *it.*	Marie a écrit une lettre. Marie *l* 'a écrit.	Marie schrieb den Brief. Marie schrieb *ihn.*	María escribió la carta. María *la* escribió.
PROGRESSIVE REPLACEMENT DRILL			
Substitute alternately object and subject according to the cue:			
John bought a *car.* — bicycle John bought a *bicycle.*	Jean a acheté une *voiture.* — bicyclette Jean a acheté une *bicyclette.*	Hans kaufte ein *Auto.* — Fahrrad Hans kaufte ein *Fahrrad.*	Juan compró un *automóvil.* — bicicleta Juan compró una *bicicleta.*
— mother *Mother* bought a bicycle.	— maman *Maman* a acheté une bicyclette.	— die Mutter *Die Mutter* kaufte ein Fahrrad.	— mamá *Mamá* compró una bicicleta.
— radio Mother bought a *radio.*	— radio Maman a acheté une *radio.*	— Radio Die Mutter kaufte ein *Radio.*	— radio Mamá compró un *radio.*
— my friend *My friend* bought a radio.	— mon ami *Mon ami* a acheté une radio.	— mein Freund *Mein Freund* kaufte ein Radio.	— mi amigo *Mi amigo* compró un radio.

ENGLISH	FRENCH	GERMAN	SPANISH
Substitute the *cue word* with a *pronoun:*			
Mary gives the books to John.	Marie donne les livres à Jean.	Marie gibt Hans die Bücher.	María da los libros a Juan.
— John Mary gives the books to *him*.	— Jean Marie *lui* donne les livres.	— Hans Marie gibt *ihm* die Bücher.	— Juan María *le* da los libros.
— books Mary gives *them* to him.	— livres Marie *les* lui donne.	— Bücher Marie gibt *sie* ihm.	— libros María se *los* da.
— Mary *She* gives them to him.	— Marie *Elle* les lui donne.	— Marie *Sie* gibt sie ihm.	— María *Ella* se los da.
TRANSFORMATION DRILL			
I *go* to school.	Je *vais* à l 'école.	Ich *gehe* zur Schule.	*Voy* a la escuela.
— he He *goes* to school.	— il Il *va* à l 'école.	— er Er *geht* zur Schule.	— él El *va* a la escuela.
You *drive* a car.	Vous *conduisez* la voiture.	Ihr *fährt* Auto.	Uds. *manejan* un automóvil.
— she She *drives* a car.	— elle Elle *conduit* la voiture.	— sie Sie *fährt* Auto.	— ella Ella *maneja* un automóvil.
Make negative statements out of the following:			
John *runs* fast.	Jean *court* vite.	Hans *läuft* schnell.	Juan *corre* de prisa.
John *doesn't run* fast.	Jean *ne court pas* vite.	Hans *läuft nicht* schnell.	Juan *no corre* de prisa.
John *reads* well.	Jean *lit* bien.	Hans *liest* gut.	Juan *lee* bien.
John *doesn't read* well.	Jean *ne lit pas* bien.	Hans *liest nicht* gut.	Juan *no lee* bien.

RESTATEMENT AND DIRECTED RESPONSE DRILLS

Restatement and directed response drills provide the learner with a patterned utterance which he uses to re-enter vocabulary and structures in different ways by addressing a command, a question, or a statement to someone else according to the cue. It is an important step from controlled variation to the free selection of utterances at the advanced levels of language learning.

CUED RESPONSE DRILL			
Mary speaks fast.	Marie parle vite.	Marie spricht schnell.	María habla de prisa.
— And the students? The students speak fast, too.	— Et les étudiants? Les étudiants parlent vite aussi.	— Und die Studenten? Die Studenten sprechen auch schnell.	— ¿Y los estudiantes? Los estudiantes también hablan de prisa.
Where are you going on your vacation?	Où vas-tu pendant les vacances?	Wohin fährst du in den Ferien?	¿A dónde vas a pasar las vacaciones?
— to the beach I'm going to the beach on my vacation.	— à la plage Je vais à la plage pendant les vacances.	— an den Strand Ich fahre in den Ferien an den Strand.	— a la playa Voy a la playa.
Questions requiring yes and no answers			
John is always late, isn't he?	Jean est toujours en retard, n'est-ce pas?	Hans kommt immer zu spät, nicht wahr?	Juan siempre llega tarde, ¿verdad?

ENGLISH	FRENCH	GERMAN	SPANISH
Yes, John's always late.	Oui, Jean est toujours en retard.	Ja, Hans kommt immer zu spät.	Sí, Juan siempre llega tarde.
Jean doesn't play well, does she?	Jeanne ne joue pas bien, n'est ce pas.	Johanna spielt nicht gut, nicht wahr?	Juanita no toca muy bien, ¿verdad?
No, she doesn't.	Non, elle ne joue pas bien.	Nein, sie spielt nicht gut.	No, no toca muy bien.
Directed Command			
Tell Mary not to forget her homework.	Dites à Marie de ne pas oublier ses devoirs!	Sagen Sie Marie, sie soll ihre Aufgaben nicht vergessen!	¡Dígale a María que no olvide sus deberes!
Mary, don't forget your homework.	Marie, n'oublie pas tes devoirs!	Marie, vergiss deine Aufgaben nicht!	María, ¡no olvides tus deberes!
Directed Statement			
Tell Mary that you're going downtown tomorrow.	Dites à Marie que vous allez en ville demain!	Sagen Sie Marie, dass Sie morgen in die Stadt gehen!	iDígale a María que mañana Ud. va al centro!
Mary, I'm going downtown tomorrow.	Marie, je vais en ville demain.	Marie, morgen geh ich in die Stadt.	María, mañana voy al centro.
Directed Question			
Ask Robert whether he wants to come along.	Demandez à Robert s'il veut venir avec nous!	Fragen Sie Robert, ob er mitkommen will!	¡Pregúntele a Roberto si quiere venir con nosotros!
Robert, do you want to come along?	Robert, veux-tu venir avec nous?	Robert, willst du mitkommen?	Roberto, ¿quieres venir con nosotros?
Choice Question			
Would you like French fries or rice?	Préfèrez-vous des frites ou du riz?	Möchten Sie gebackene Kartoffeln oder Reis?	¡Quiere Ud. papas fritas o arroz?
I'd like French fries. or I'd like rice.	Je préfères de des frites. or Je préfère du riz.	Ich möchte gebackene Kartoffeln. or Ich möchte Reis.	Quiero papas fritas. or Quiero arroz.

EXPANSION DRILLS An expansion drill aids the learner in the development of Sprachgefühl for the arrangement of structural elements within an utterance or a sentence, since the sequence and placement of items such as adverbs, adverbial phrases, and modifiers usually present difficulties for the language student.

He told me.	Il me le dit.	Er hat es mir gesagt.	Me lo ha dicho.
— not yet He hasn't told me yet.	— ne pas . . . encore Il ne me l'a pas encore dit.	— noch nicht Er hat es mir noch nicht gesagt.	— todavía no No me lo ha dicho todavía.
Have you seen the sunset?	Avez-vous vu le coucher de soleil?	Haben Sie den Sonnenuntergang gesehen?	¿Ha visto Ud. la puesta del sol?
— beautiful Have you seen the beautiful sunset?	— beau Avez-vous vu le beau coucher de soleil?	— herrlich Haben Sie den herrlichen Sonnenuntergang gesehen?	— hermoso ¿Ha visto Ud, la hermosa puesta del sol?
He plays tennis.	Il joue au tennis.	Er spielt Tennis.	El juega al tenis.
— well He plays tennis well.	— bien Il joue bien au tennis.	— gut Er spielt gut Tennis.	— bien El juega bien al tenis.

ENGLISH	FRENCH	GERMAN	SPANISH
I'm driving downtown.	Je vais en ville.	Ich fahre in die Stadt.	Voy a la ciudad.
— with the Buick I'm driving downtown with the Buick.	— dans la Renault Je vais en ville dans la Renault.	— mit dem Volkswagen Ich fahre mit dem Volkswagen in die Stadt.	— en el *Seat* Voy a la ciudad en el *Seat*.
— this morning I'm driving downtown with the Buick this morning.	— ce matin Ce matin, je vais en ville dans la Renault.	— heute morgen Ich fahre heute morgen mit dem Volkswagen in die Stadt.	— hoy por la mañana Voy a la ciudad en el *Seat* hoy por la mañana.

CONTRACTION DRILLS A contraction drill reduces the size of an utterance when the antecedents are stated beforehand or are clearly understood. In some languages contractions *must* be used in special cases while in others this is optional. For example, "Ich habe zwei Mark *für das Buch* bezahlt." "Ich have zwei Mark *dafür* bezahlt. — "J'ai payé deux francs *pour le livre*." "J'*en* ai payé deux francs."

Tell him that the play is tomorrow.	Dites-lui qu'on donnera la pièce demain!	Sag ihm, dass das Stück morgen gespielt wird!	¡Dígale que la pieza se presentará mañana!
Tell it to him.	Dites-le-lui!	Sag es ihm!	¡Dígaselo!
I'm driving to the country tomorrow.	Je vais à la campagne demain.	Ich fahre morgen aufs Land.	Voy al campo mañana.
I'm driving there.	J'y vais demain.	Ich fahre morgen dorthin.	Mañana voy allí.

INTEGRATION DRILLS The integration drill combines two utterances or statements either coordinating them or subordinating one to the other. In the different languages integration drills are especially useful because they deal with crucial problems such as the use of the subjunctive, indirect discourse, conditions contrary to fact, and word order.

In the development of the drills it is of particular importance that the sequence of subordinate clauses and main clauses be varied:

SUBORDINATE CLAUSE ..... MAIN CLAUSE
MAIN CLAUSE ..... SUBORDINATE CLAUSE
MAIN CLAUSE.....SUBORDINATE CLAUSE.....CONTINUATION OF MAIN CLAUSE

Coordinating Conjunction He is happy about the warm weather. He likes to swim.	Il se réjouit du beau temps. Il aime nager.	Er freut sich über das schöne Wetter. Er schwimmt gern.	Se alegra de que haga buen tiempo. Quiere nadar.
— because He is happy about the warm weather because he likes to swim.	— car Il se réjouit du beau temps, car il aime nager.	— denn Er freut sich über das schöne Wetter, denn er schwimmt gern.	— porque Se alegra de que haga buen tiempo porque quiere nadar.
Subordinating Conjunction Noun clause I know it. Mary goes to school.	Je le sais. Marie va à l'école.	Ich weiss es. Marie geht zur Schule.	Lo sé. María va a la escuela.

ENGLISH	FRENCH	GERMAN	SPANISH
— that I know that Mary goes to school.	— que Je sais que Marie va à l'école.	— dass Ich weiss, dass Marie zur Schule geht.	— que Sé que María va a la escuela.
Relative clause			
Mrs. White is rich. She travels frequently.	Madame Leblanc est riche. Elle voyage souvent.	Frau Weiss ist reich. Sie reist oft.	La Señora Blanca es rica. Ella viaja mucho.
Mrs. White, who is rich, travels frequently.	Madame Leblanc, qui est riche, voyage souvent.	Frau Weiss, die reich ist, reist oft.	La Señora Blanca, que es rica, viaja mucho.
Adverbial clause			
John is late. He missed the bus.	Jean est en retard. Il a manqué l'autobus.	Hans kommt zu spät. Er hat den Bus verpasst.	Juan llega tarde. El perdió el autobús.
— because John is late because he missed the bus.	— parce que Jean est en retard parce que il a manqué l 'autobus.	— weil Hans kommt zu spät, weil er den Bus verpasst hat.	— porque Juan llega tarde porque perdió el autobús.

TRANSLATION DRILLS

Translation drills are used to teach constructions that deviate considerably in the target language from the corresponding native constructions or idioms. The tape voice or the teacher provides the target language pattern which the student repeats, then continues with a series of English cues representing slight variations of the model. Translation drills should be used sparingly since they work against the objective of learning to think in the foreign language.

Model:			
I have to look for my pencil.	Il faut que je cherche mon crayon.	Ich muss meinen Bleistift suchen.	Tengo que buscar mi lápiz.
— pen (The cue for the English expression would be given in the native language of the learner)	Il faut je cherche ma plume.	Ich muss meine Feder suchen.	Tengo que buscar mi pluma.
— book	Il faut que je cherche mon livre.	Ich muss mein Buch suchen.	Tengo que buscar mi libro.
— notebook	Il faut que je cherche mon cahier.	Ich muss mein Heft suchen.	Tengo que buscar mi cuaderno.
— dog	Il faut que je cherche mon chien.	Ich muss meinen Hund suchen.	Tengo que buscar mi perro.
— car	Il faut que je cherche ma voiture.	Ich muss meinen Wagen suchen.	Tengo que buscar mi carro.
Model:			
It pays to read.	Il vaut la peine de lire.	Es lohnt sich zu lesen.	Vale la pena leer.
— work (The cue for the English expression would be given in the native language of the learner)	Il vaut la peine de travailler.	Es lohnt sich zu arbeiten.	Vale la pena trabajar.
— study	Il vaut la peine d'étudier.	Es lohnt sich zu studieren.	Vale la pena estudiar.
— get up early	Il vaut la peine de se lever de bonne heure.	Es lohnt sich früh aufzustehen.	Vale la pena levantarse temprano.
— save money	Il vaut la peine d'épargner de l'argent.	Es lohnt sich Geld zu sparen.	Vale le pena ahorrar dinero.

Maintaining Oral Skills

At the beginning stages of reading it is important that the student hear *that which* he reads. Either the teacher does this with the students in the classroom or the tape plays the part of the teacher in the language laboratory as the student silently reads the written material. By means of the explosion technique where the material is broken down into short utterances and appropriate phrases the teacher provides the student with the opportunity to maintain an accurate and correct pattern of stress and melody. Hearing orally what he is reading aids the learner in comprehending the written text. Some teachers develop tapes on all materials read in class.

Taped reading exercises can be of great assistance to the teacher in providing reading practice. Once these are made the teacher can devote more time to individual student learning problems.

A good share of the reading materials at almost any level should contain dialogue and conversation. In the taping of these materials special consideration should be given to dramatization; that is, when a number of persons are involved in the conversations and dialogues the roles on the tape should, if possible, be of the same sex and age as those portrayed in the reading selection. The students oral accuracy and fluency is helped considerably in imitating and perhaps even memorizing such scenes. In laboratories where students can be hooked up with each other and monitored, reading such scenes aloud presents a challenging oral activity for the student.

Drills for Writing

Writing in the beginning should establish accurate habits of spelling, capitalization, and punctuation. Students should not be asked to write material they have not learned audio-lingually. The following suggestions should provide the teacher with further ideas for making taped writing drills.

A student listens to a short utterance read twice by the teacher or the taped voice, then writes it. After he has completed the exercise he checks it against a mimeographed copy of the utterances.

At a more advanced level the student listens to an entire paragraph or selection read by the teacher or the taped voice. The voice or the teacher then begins again by reading each sentence twice, pausing to allow the students to write. Long sentences are broken into smaller meaningful units when necessary. Finally the entire paragraph or reading selection is reread while the student listens and makes further corrections. Then he is given a mimeographed copy of the text against which he checks his paper.

A student can also be supplied with a written text in which an occasional word is missing. He fills in the words as required according to the taped oral text. The omitted words illustrate a point of spelling or structure.

Taped voice: The woman, whom the children loved dearly, never came back.
Written text to be filled in: The ———, ——— the children loved dearly, never came back.

Many of the structure drills as well as the repetition drills described in this section and the evaluation techniques described in Chapter Six can be converted into writing drills. Care must be taken, however, to provide students with longer pauses for their written responses. Taped writing drills have the advantage of not catering to the requests of the students for innumerable repetitions.

Procedures for Making A Good Tape

Teachers who make their own drills should expect to devote considerable time to the activity. However, when carefully done the results will be highly rewarding. The teacher should observe the following procedures:

1. If possible, record in a soundproof room or booth. Choose a quiet area away from ringing bells, traffic, and loud noises. Turn off fans and air conditioners. Fluorescent lighting can also cause trouble. Make sure that the recording heads on the tape recorder are clean and demagnetized
2. To avoid motor vibrations affecting program quality, suspend the microphone or place it on a second table at some distance from the tape recorder
3. The microphone should be placed at least four feet from the nearest wall unless the wall is soundproofed. This position reduces the possibility of sound waves bouncing from wall to microphone
4. If possible, use a professional quality microphone. The one supplied with the recorder is usually not good enough
5. Place the microphone close to your mouth — within two to four inches, a little to one side. Speak past the microphone rather than directly into it. This will reduce the "puff" in plosives such as "p" and hissing sibilants
6. Make sure that your recording indicator provides a good recording level, not too high and not too low and adjust the tone to the voice level
7. Work preferably with a tape recorder that has a pause button. This will help you feel at ease because you know that you can stop and start the tape at your discretion
8. Have a glass of water ready to lubricate your voice
9. Record from a written script. Rehearse the script before recording
10. Place the script on a reading stand. This position allows reading of the script and speaking without lowering and raising the head
11. Turn script pages quietly
12. Record a few lines of the material and play back for evaluation before making your complete master recording
13. Each exercise should begin by identifying itself by name or the book it accompanies and chapters, if any. The kind of drill, that is, repetition, and substitution, for example, should also be given, followed by instructions to the student

Exploded Drill Technique

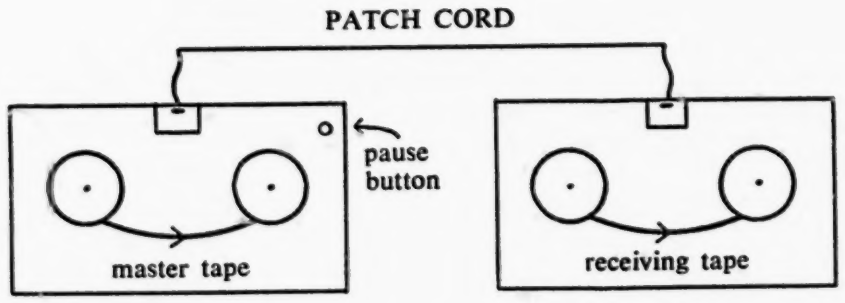
This technique is used to prepare, duplicate, or edit recorded materials for teaching purposes. It consists primarily of inserting pauses into recorded material.

Procedure:

1. The original program, if a phonograph recording or a radio program, must first be recorded on tape
2. The tape is placed on a tape recorder with an instantaneous starting and stopping facility, a pause button
3. The output of the recorder with the master program is connected to the input of the receiving recorder by means of a patch cord
4. Both machines are started simultaneously; the master recorder is set on "play" and the receiving recorder is set on "record"
5. The control on the master recorder should be set between "balanced tone" and "treble" and on the receiving recorder on "treble"
6. By monitoring the master program and manipulating the instantaneous stop-start switch the teacher controls the phrases and pauses as the receiving recorder records

7. Timing and correct phrasing is of utmost importance. The teacher may have to listen to the tape in its entirety in order to judge appropriate spacing
8. The fidelity of the recording is much higer on tapes recorded with 7½ ips than with 3¾ ips. While 3¾ ips will usually suffice for spoken programs, songs and music should be recorded on 7½ ips.

PICTORIAL HOOK-UP



9. Accessories needed for making tapes:
   a. leader tape
   b. timing tape
   c. splicing tape (no Scotch tape)
   d. tape splicer
   e. bulk eraser (provides for the erasure of used tapes in a matter of seconds)
   f. alligator clips (for re-recording disk programs on tape)
   g. patch cord and extension cord
   h. reading stand
   i. stop watch
   j. stick-on labels
   k. Q-tips and rubbing alcohol (for cleaning tape heads)
   l. head demagnetizer
   m. scissors, pen, and pencil

Tape Handling

Since repeated threading tends to wear and crease tape ends resulting in breaks, tapes should have lead-ins. Leader tape can be used to protect the ends of the tape against repeated damage; it allows recording right up to the end of the tape. For tape lead-ins splice two to three feet of leader tape to each end of the magnetic tape using a standard diagonal splice. Leader tape should provide space for writing a description of the tape with pen or pencil. The problem of placing the tape in the wrong box is thus avoided and both ends can be identified with a code number or title. Using different colored leader tape at the beginning and the end of the tape is helpful.

Many teachers insert leader tape between selections for identification. The selections are easier to find since the leader tape contrasts with the dark magnetic tape. Timing tape is also available to help set up tapes requiring precise timing or cueing between selections.

It is very important to have tape, reel, and box carefully labeled. The tape box should be labeled on its edges. A card index file based on the above labeling procedure can complete this process. The language department should agree on a specific method of labeling and cataloging its tapes. Stack describes in great detail an effective method of doing this.[8]

In storing tapes the following considerations should be observed:

1) Storing of unboxed reels of tape should be avoided. The box protects the tape from dust and physical damage.
2) After using a tape it should be rewound before putting it into the box.
3) Tapes should be stored on shelves "on edge" or flat, preferably "on edge," since the weight of the stacking may warp the plastic reels.
4) Where there are wide variations in humidity, tape storage in sealed containers is recommended. The use of drying or humidifying agents is not recommended because of the difficulty in controlling the results.
5) Avoid extremes of temperature. If tapes are subjected to extremes of temperatures, such as in shipment, allow 16 to 24 hours for them to return to room temperature before using.
6) Occasional use of the tape minimizes storage damage. Playing the tape on a machine releases strains and adhesions.
7) Excessive tension in rewinding tape for storage should be avoided. The tape may become stretched or permanently distorted if wound too tightly.
8) The cleaning of tape is not necessary in normal operation. If dust is excessive, the tape may be cleaned by wiping it with a dry, clean, lint free cloth while rewinding.
9) If the tape has been stored six months or longer, it is a good idea to rewind it once before using it. If it is to be stored five years or longer, the tape should be placed in a sealed container.

Tape Quality

While there are many different brands of tape available there are essentially only two types: acetate and "unbreakable" tape. In determining what kind of tape to buy the teacher should consider the following factors:

ACETATE	UNBREAKABLE
Positive	
1. More economical	1. Does not break under normal conditions
2. Breaks clean	2. Will not need excessive care in handling
3. Does not stretch — the quality of the program remains the same	3. Humidity and heat factors will not affect the tape
Negative	
1. Will not take the abuse other tapes will take	1. Will stretch when abused — fast rewinding and sudden stops might hurt it and its fidelity
2. Needs more careful handling	2. More expensive
3. Is susceptible to heat and humidity	

[8] Stack, Edward M. *The Language Laboratory and Modern Language Teaching*, Oxford University Press, 1960, Chapter VI, pp. 72–83.

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Chapter VI

EVALUATION

Overall Foreign Language Program Evaluation

Evaluation of a total educational program considers the amount and quality of effort expended on a program and the observable results in terms of student learning. Specifically, the following questions may be asked regarding a school's foreign language program.

Administrative Considerations

1. Is the school schedule flexible enough so that students may enroll in foreign language classes without sacrificing other worthwhile educational experiences?
2. Does the school provide a foreign language sequence long enough so that students may develop a real proficiency in the language?
3. Has provision been made for continuity of instruction from its beginning through grade 12?
4. Have procedures been established to articulate the instructional program between levels in any given school and/or between elementary school, junior high school, and senior high school when programs exist at lower levels?
5. Have adequate provisions been made to coordinate the program within a building and within the school district?
6. Is the preparation of the teaching staff adequate to meet the stated objectives?
7. Does the school system promote participation in in-service training, night courses, summer institutes, and travel abroad?
8. Are teachers compensated for engaging in such further activity?
9. Is the staff utilization appropriate and effective?
10. Is adequate supervision provided for the program?
11. Is the community involved in planning and developing the program?
12. Are foreign language experiences available for all children?
13. Has sufficient space, materials and equipment — tape recorders, record players, slides, foreign language periodicals, books, realia, and tape recordings — been provided for teachers to create a varied and stimulating program and to deal with individual differences?

Instructional Considerations

1. Have the objectives of the program been clearly defined?
2. Are the instructional methods used suitable for learning all foreign language skills?
3. Is there emphasis on language as communication?
4. Is the student taught spoken language appropriate for conversational use as well as literary language?
5. Are there opportunities to compare the native with the foreign culture?
6. Has the course been planned in sufficient detail to provide appropriate guidelines?
7. Has the program been planned in accordance with the total curriculum?
8. Are materials used in instruction appropriate to the ability, maturity, and interests of the learner?

Evaluative Considerations

1. Do evaluation activities measure command of a language in situations approximating those in life?
2. Are all four skills evaluated?
3. Is there evidence of student progress in all skills?
4. Have the instructional materials and equipment used proved efficient and adequate?
5. Is standardized testing used?
6. Is the material learned enjoyed and used widely in and out of school?
7. Is there increased interest in foreign peoples and cultures?
8. Is there evidence of increased international understanding as shown by activities such as:
   a. Use of supplementary materials — books, films?
   b. Contact with speakers of the language?
   c. Trips?
   d. Civic activities?
   e. Foreign language camps?
   f. Pen pals, tape pals?
9. At the advanced levels in the longer sequences is use made of modern literary materials interesting to students at that particular age level?
10. Is there participation in special foreign language and related activities in school and community?
11. How well do teachers use testing and other forms of evaluation in analyzing the effectiveness of their teaching?

Prognostic or Aptitude Testing

Prognosis, or the prediction of success in learning a modern language, is the subject of considerable research among modern language educators. Attempts have been made to use various means of prognosticating success and selecting students who are capable of learning modern languages. Some criteria were the requirement of a "B" or better average, an IQ of 100 or above in an intelligence test, or high scores on aptitude tests.

Dunkel and Pillet found that 10 to 20 percent of the children "who show normal or superior ability in most school subjects appear to have a distinct lack of ability in foreign languages." Carroll's unpublished studies show that certain predictive tests were valid even among children who had already been

selected for high intelligence. Results of the Modern Language Aptitude Test indicate that this prognostic test was superior to intelligence tests in predictive power. In other words, the IQ has proved to be of questionable value in predicting success in modern language learning. As yet, no truly valid prognostic instruments have been devised. The best predictor in the prognosis of achievement in modern language study is still a sample of actual work in a language class over a period of time. The best aptitude test on the market today is the Carroll-Sapon *Modern Language Aptitude Test*, MLAT, obtainable from the Psychological Corporation, 304 East 45th Street, New York 17.

A point worthy of consideration is that language study has something to offer to nearly every child. A child's achievement in fluency and acculturation will vary in degree with his native intelligence, his interest, and his ability to hear and imitate sounds. Children whose sound perception may be low may not be able to learn to speak well, but they can learn to read in the language. This adds something of value to their broad educational experience in giving them some knowledge of another people, their country, their way of life, their culture, and their literature.

Achievement Testing and Evaluation

Testing is a periodic sampling of a student's accumulated knowledge and skills; evaluation involves the student's progress in *all* areas of learning, both objective and subjective. Most school systems require some form of marking or grading, which essentially is an evaluation of the student's capabilities and achievements. Language learning should be evaluated at all levels, including the elementary school, in the same manner as other subjects in the curriculum. Evaluating stresses the position of the modern language program as an integral part of general education.

The evaluative process is useful

1. To the student for evaluating his own progress and providing for his motivation
2. To the teacher in determining the strengths and weaknesses of the language teaching process
3. To the teacher in determining strengths and weaknesses of the language learning process
4. To the teacher in comparing the achievement of his students on tests with national, standardized norms
5. In articulating the modern language sequences
6. In adding new sequences
7. To superintendents, principals, and school boards interested in the modern language program
8. For students changing schools during their language study

Progress in modern language skills is observed through an analysis of achievement test results and through information gathered informally. Progress in cultural understanding as opposed to cultural information is very difficult to evaluate except through long range follow up of individual student activities and observations of their behavior. Achievement test results indicate individual progress in listening, speaking, reading, writing, and the attainment of cultural information. Progress may be examined in terms of the individual student, classroom, grade level, school, or district. Uneven progress in skills may derive from inadequate techniques or materials, from differences in student ability, or from variations in teacher effectiveness.

As in all curriculum areas, modern languages are in need of a continuous evaluation program, so that the greatest amount of progress may be realized by the individual student and so that optimum teaching effectiveness may be obtained by the individual instructor.

Informal Testing In Classroom and Laboratory

Evaluation of pupil progress is an ongoing process which does not always require the use of lengthy formal tests. Daily observation of students' oral work and examination of written work provides the teacher with information that can be highly valuable in indicating the direction future instruction should take. Such evaluation should be systematic. The teacher may select several points of pronunciation and grammar for evaluation each day and grade as many students as he is able on these points by monitoring individuals during individual and group repetitions.

A similar process may be used in the language laboratory. From the console the teacher can monitor quickly a sizeable number of students grading their oral work as he listens. Daily evaluation of this type in classroom and laboratory provides the teacher with a constant record indicating whether all students have been receiving equal attention in recitation activities.

Stack suggests a further informal type of laboratory evaluation: "If a laboratory period is begun with the *testing portions* of the tapes used in the preceding laboratory session, the monitor will obtain grades significant of the degree of learning taking place. Grades should not be assigned on the first time through a new tape. Likewise, it may be unfair to give a student a grade at a point in a tape where there is a change in pattern. The cumulative grades for laboratory work over a semester provide a reliable guide to the student's aural comprehension and ability to speak the language. They could be used in lieu of a special aural-oral examination in computing this part of a student's final grade." [9]

Many short tests of different types can be given daily; they provide a strong motivating factor, and serve to sharpen the student's alertness and to stimulate his interest. They have psychological value in that they make the student use at once what he has learned, reinforcing correct usage by immediate correction. Being short, the small daily test gives the slow learner a chance to accomplish a task that may be too much for him on a longer test. Such tests should be from five to ten minutes in length and should be considered as diagnostic or learning tests rather than serving as a basis for grading.

Principles for the Construction of Achievement Tests

Some of the new materials for modern language courses come complete with unit tests. However, teachers will continue to construct a sizeable number of their own tests.

Whether one is evaluating a ready-made test or building his own, the following principles should be useful.

1. Tests should determine what the *student* knows, not what the *teacher* knows.

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[9] ETL Newsletter: *COMMUNICATE.*

2. A test must provide a learning experience by showing the student what is expected of him and by allowing him to apply what he has learned.
3. All four skills should be tested.
4. The items should represent material learned in class and the distribution should correspond to the importance of the skill measured.
5. The test should ask for responses in normal language behavior.
6. The test writer should analyze the skills in the expected language behavior and test them separately as well as collectively.
7. Idioms, vocabulary, structures, and cultural items should be tested in context and should not appear as lists of facts or rules.
8. Incorrect forms should not be presented to students.
9. Test items should be in the foreign language and ask for performances in the foreign language. Translation should be requested only at advanced levels, that is, 4th, 5th, 6th year, and then entirely as evidence of the student's ability to render accurately in English, technical articles, foreign correspondence, directions, or literary material.
10. All directions should be short and clear. At the elementary stage directions in English are preferable. Usually a sample item and its answer are necessary. When sample items are not supplied, the type of question must be familiar to the student.
11. When subjective evaluation is necessary a quality scale should be used. A quality scale is a series of responses varying in worth from *best* to *worst*, each bearing an evaluation tag arrived at by consensus.

The testing procedures listed below have been developed in accordance with the above principles. They can be adjusted to both the pre-reading and reading phases and adapted to all levels of language learning.

Testing Listening Skills

With the increased emphasis on the spoken language, new techniques for testing the listening comprehension skill have become mandatory. Listening items are used to test general comprehension, common expressions, specific vocabulary, phonology, morphology, and syntax.

Procedures

1. The students have a series of three or four pictures in their booklets. The teacher or the voice on the tape reads a statement in the target language. The students mark the picture which best agrees with the statement.
2. The teacher or voice on the tape asks the students to perform certain tasks in their test booklets, such as give the answer to simple arithmetic problems, draw a cat, put eyes in the outlines of a face, draw a square, a circle, or parts of a drawing.
3. The teacher or voice on the tape makes a statement. The students mark whether it is true or false.
4. The teacher or voice on the tape gives an incomplete statement. The meaning of the statement will be completed correctly by *one* of three suggested words or expressions in the target language.
5. The teacher or voice on the tape will give a short definition of a person, object, or idea without actually naming it. Three answers in the target language will be given. One of these will be selected by the students as the correct answer.
6. Voice number one on the tape asks a question. Voice number two gives three answers. The students mark the number of the correct answer.
7. Voice number one on the tape gives an answer. Voice number two gives three questions. The students mark the number of the question which would elicit the answer given by voice number one.
8. A short dialogue is given on the tape. This is followed by three or four oral statements about the dialogue which are true or false.
9. The students are presented with a picture which either tells a story or describes a situation. The voice on the tape or the teacher describes three situations or tells three short stories. One of these corresponds with the picture. The students choose the number of the correct aural description of the picture.
10. The students are told a story containing a number of specifics. They are asked to retell the story in their own words in English at the elementary stage and later in the target language.
11. The students look at a picture. They then hear a statement about the picture and indicate on their answer sheet whether the statement is true or false.
12. The students see a picture and then hear three statements (A, B, C) about the picture. They decide which statement is true and mark its letter on their answer sheet. The student sees a picture of a pan. He hears: A) It's a pan, B) It's a pen, C) It's a pin.
13. The voice on tape makes a statement and several rejoinders. The students select the most logical rejoinder and write its letter on their answer sheets.
    I'm hungry A) Let's go to a restaurant. B) Here is a glass of water. C) I can't eat another thing.
14. A short taped conversation is played for the students. They then indicate where it probably took place or who is speaking. Locations or persons may be suggested in a list.
15. Students listen to a dialogue or narrative. They then listen to or read a number of statements about the passage and indicate whether each statement is true or false.
16. Students hear a sentence read aloud which is similar to one of four written sentences and select the sentence they think they heard read. This item tests the recognition of sound symbol — written symbol correspondence.

Testing Speaking Skills

The testing of speaking is difficult since results must be based on subjective appraisal. Scoring is made more objective by taping responses, and by establishing criteria for scoring prior to testing. The use of a tape recorder permits evaluation by more than one scorer and allows scorers to evaluate one item for more than one aspect of the speaking skill. Students' responses may be evaluated by means of a rating scale from one to five on the basis of five categories:

1. fluency
2. pronunciation and intonation
3. correctness — order and structure
4. conveying the idea
5. use of vocabulary

For instance, in number four — conveying the idea — the rating scale would be:

5 points: Student conveys the idea completely and correctly
or
Student conveys the idea completely and correctly, but elaborates and in so doing makes some errors which interfere little with the understanding of the utterance

4 points: Student conveys the simple idea with one or more errors in pronunciation, structure, and vocabulary, but these errors are such as *not* to interfere with the understanding of the idea

3 points: Student conveys some or partial meaning

2 points: Student conveys very little meaning
or
Student makes errors which obscure some of the meaning

1 point: Student says nothing
or
Student conveys wrong meaning entirely

If a language laboratory with recording facilities is not available for testing the speaking skill, the classroom teacher will probably have to use one of the following procedures for testing one student at a time.

1. The teacher records master test on tape and places it on recorder provided with headphones. A second recorder with microphone is used by the student to record his responses. He sets machine number two on *record* and machine number one on *play*. With earphones on he picks up the microphone and responds to test items. When finished he stops tape machine two and rewinds tape on machine one for the next student. To save tape on machine two and teacher correction time, the student may stop machine with pause button as he listens to each new item
2. For elementary and junior high school students, the teacher will have to perform recorder operations himself. In this case, the recorders should be located away from the class and the test items broadcast through the recorder speaker rather than through headphones
3. The teacher can present the test items himself. In this case, only one recorder will be needed to record student responses. The teacher must make sure that presentation is uniform for all students
4. Another method eliminates the need for recording. The teacher writes about four test items for each student. The test is administered to one student at a time while the others in the class listen. A sizeable number of items of similar difficulty is needed in this case

Procedures

1. The student listens to an utterance and then repeats it with proper pronunciation and intonation
2. The teacher or the voice on the tape asks a series of questions about a picture to which the student records his answer
3. The student records on tape one or two sentences describing a picture
4. The student records on tape answers to a series of questions asked by the teacher or the voice on the tape
5. Same as number four but a cue is provided:
   Why are you going downtown?
   Cue: go shopping
   I'm going shopping.
6. The teacher or the voice on the tape, in English or in the target language, asks the student to give a certain command or to ask a question
7. The student changes a question to a statement or vice versa:
   John is going today.
   Is John going today?
8. A series of three or four pictures telling a simple story is shown to the student who records his version of the story
9. The student is given a short passage to read. After a quick preview he records it for later evaluation by the teacher
10. A statement is given. The student is told to repeat the statement, providing a synonym or an antonym for an indicated word
11. The student is told to provide a suitable rejoinder for each of a series of utterances:
    She's fifteen.
    She doesn't act like it
12. A student is told to expand an utterance by inserting a given word or phrase with the necessary changes:

He sings.	He sees the squirrel.
Cue: beautiful	Cue: two
He sings beautifully.	He sees two squirrels.

13. The student is instructed to *change* an utterance or passage in one of the following ways:
    1) tense
    2) nouns to pronouns
    3) positive to negative
    4) singular to plural
    5) person
    6) direct to indirect discourse, for example
14. The student is directed to combine two sentences into a single sentence:
    1) expressing a contrary to fact situation, or
    2) using a specified conjunction, or
    3) making one sentence a relative clause
15. The student is provided with an "action picture." He is told to describe what is taking place or give an imaginary conversation
16. A student is given a situation in English but later in the target language. He is directed to provide appropriate dialogue:
    You meet a friend on the street. Greet him and ask how he is. He answers he's fine and asks how you are. You tell him fine too and ask where he's going. He says he's going to lunch and asks you to come along. You say fine, you'd like to.
17. The student either listens to or reads a short passage and then gives it from memory. Word cues can be provided.

Testing Reading Skills

The student's knowledge of the listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills will determine the techniques that can best be used in testing reading. Some of the techniques suggested below for reading involve other skills. Also some of the procedures used in testing the listening skill, can with modifi-

cations be used to test the reading skill. The items which test the understanding of the reading passage or utterance must use the vocabulary and structures with which the student is already familiar. This challenges the tester in the elementary school where children have only a rudimentary command of the reading skills.

Procedures

1. The student reads or records the phrases or utterances flashed on a screen or found in a test booklet.
   (A test for the recognition of graphic symbols.)
2. The students hear a sentence read aloud from four similar written sentences and select the one which they think they heard read.
   (A test for the recognition of sound symbol-written symbol correspondence.)
3. A student is presented with a picture. In his test booklet will be:
   a. A series of three or four sentences one of which correctly depicts the situation in the picture
   b. An incomplete sentence followed by three or four choices, one of which correctly completes the sentence
4. A student is presented with two or more pictures. In his test booklet is an utterance or a statement containing a structure problem. The student chooses the picture that best fits the utterance. The pictures must be drawn so that the picture representing the correct answer differs by a minimal distinctive feature.

Three pictures

A. The boy hits the girl.

5. A student is presented with a series of four or more pictures, usually telling a story. In his test booklet are a series of statements to be arranged correctly according to the sequence of the pictures.
6. A story or reading selection is followed by
   a. A number of true and false statements from which the student checks the correct statements
   b. A number of multiple choice statements from which the student checks the correct items
   c. A statement or series of statements based on the reading selection. The student checks those which can be correctly inferred from the passage
   d. A number of questions based on the content. The student is to answer them with complete sentences orally or in writing. This is an integrated test item which not only tests reading but also the oral or writing skills
7. A definition or description of a person, place, thing, situation, or concept is given. Each of these is followed by a number of choices from which the student selects the item defined or described.
8. A written statement is followed by three or four choices also in the target language, one of which is the equivalent of the underlined word or phrase in the statement. The student selects the correct equivalent. The choices can be given in English.
9. A written statement in English is followed by three or four written statements in the target language, one of which is the equivalent of the English statement.

Testing Writing Skills

When testing the writing skill the teacher evaluates a student's ability to transfer sound into written symbols, to spell, to manipulate the morphological and syntactical aspects of the language as well as the vocabulary. The question or the stimulus at the elementary level should be carefully formulated in order to elicit the required controlled response. At the intermediate and advanced levels items should call for freer responses. An evaluation of writing in the elementary school will be rudimentary if the skill has been developed at all.

Procedures

1. The student copies simple utterances with attention also paid to punctuation and diacritical marks used in the language.
2. A dialogue or text without any punctuation, capitalization, or paragraphing, is given. The student rewrites the text with correct capitalization, punctuation, and paragraphing.
3. The student copies an utterance in which he is requested to make a directed or free change of an item.

   Directed: I saw the *child* playing.
   Cue: two
   Response: I saw the two *children* playing.

   Free: I saw the *child* playing.
   I saw the *cat* playing.

   Advanced free response:
   I saw the *glub dubbing*.
   (child playing, or cat running, or dog chasing.) (Two nonsense words which test student's grasp of structural meaning.)
4. The student completes a statement in accordance with the meaning suggested by a picture.

   John is eating.
   Cue: picture of an apple
   John is eating *an apple*.
5. An utterance or statement is flashed on a screen. The student writes it after the visual image has been taken away.
6. The student writes

   Answers to questions

   What's your name?
   My name is Anna Hill.

   rejoinders to given utterances
   He's my favorite movie actor.
   rejoinder: I can't stand him.

   or restatements of written statements

   Invite him to spend the week end with you.
   Written response: How would you like to spend the weekend with me?
   or
   If at all possible, come and spend the weekend with me.
7. The student may be asked to carry out one of the following:
   a. Change a story from one person to another, from one tense to another, or adjust the story to a personal situation
   b. Change the form of a story from a dialogue to a narrative or vice versa
   c. Write a sentence using the same structural pattern of the model sentence but using a different vocabulary
      Model: The person whom he saw was John.
      Response: The hat which he disliked was imported
8. The student is provided with a passage which has a number of words missing. The student is to recognize which words are to be added and write them in the proper blanks.

   Though the laundromat is a rather recent ———, ——— fame is international. ——— a group —— African students arrived ——— Minneapolis recently —— of the ——— things they wanted —— ——— was such an ———. According to the ——— foreign ——— used them.

   Note: If desired, a glossary of terms may be provided, first letter cues given or kind of word specified, noun, pronoun, for example.
9. The student is provided with word cues. Using them he writes a sentence, paragraph, or dialogue.

   Cue: means, know, do, I, not, what, it.
   Response: I do not know what it means.
10. The student listens twice to a short passage of familiar situational and

linguistic material. Several questions follow and the student writes his answers. This item also tests listening comprehension.

11. The student writes a directed composition from an outline in English or in the target language.
    "Write a letter to your friend Bill. Ask him how he is feeling. Tell him that you are going to spend your summer in Wyoming. Ask him if he has ever visited Laramie, and so on."
12. The student summarizes a story or paragraph by utilizing the expressions of the particular passage. At the advanced level the student may use his own words and expressions.
13. Students are given a picture or a series of pictures for description or creation of a story.
14. The students are instructed to recreate a story read aloud by the teacher or a voice on tape.

Testing Cultural Information

Studying the culture of a nation in terms of its outstanding contributions to the arts, crafts, literature, social institutions, and science is an important objective in the study of a modern language. Such knowledge can be tested without much difficulty in various ways. The old cooperative modern language tests in the various languages devote an entire section to such cultural information and knowledge. These tests can be obtained from Educational Testing Services, Princeton, New Jersey.

There is another important aspect of culture which is essential in attaining a genuine understanding of another people. That aspect of culture which also deeply concerns the anthropologist is the structural system of patterned behavior, the way of life of a people rather than the refinement of a people. This phase of culture has not been sufficiently stressed in teaching and has not even been touched in testing.

The following are some samples which a teacher could use as an incentive to develop his own tests if he has a good knowledge of the patterns of behavior in the foreign culture as well as his own. These items can be constructed in English or in the foreign language.

1. The bright rays of the sun glisten on the snow and filter through the huge windows. In the center of the great hall in the Kremlin stands a huge fir tree beautifully decorated with ornaments and sweets of all kinds. Hundreds of children dressed in their holiday finery form a huge circle and sing and dance around the tree. The room is piled high with gift packages which jolly Grandfather Frost will share with the children during the course of the celebration.
   The time of this celebration is:
   1) January 1
   2) December 25
   3) January 6
   4) November 7
   5) February 2
   Number 1 is the correct answer.

2. You are in a small village 25 miles outside of a large industrial city in Germany. Which of these situations are normal occurrences without special meaning?
   You visit a family and find the following incidents taking place between 6 and 8:30 on a Monday morning:
   1) One member of the family catches the school bus to go to the *Wissentschaftliche Mittelschule* in the city.
   2) One member takes the bus to go to the large automobile factory outside the city.
   3) One member gets into the family Volkswagen to go to the city to do some shopping.
   4) One member of the family milks the cow and takes care of the farm chores.
   5) One member is still eating a breakfast of orange juice, toast, ham and eggs, and coffee.
   Numbers 2, 3, and 4 are normal occurrences.

3. University students are sitting in the large hall listening to a lecture being given by a professor. They are stamping their feet
   1) To show disagreement
   2) To show enthusiastic approval
   3) To show impatience because the professor is lecturing overtime
   4) To show discomfort because the classroom is cold
   5) Because it is the custom to do this at the end of a lecture
   Number 2 is the best possible answer.

4. You are in a cafe in Spain and you wish to call the waiter to indicate that you have changed your mind and you wish to order something else. You would
   1) Clap your hands above your head
   2) Snap your fingers
   3) Try to catch the waiter's eye
   4) Stand up
   The correct answer is 1.

Advanced Placement

In the last decade the question of Advanced Placement has repeatedly arisen as secondary schools have revised certain curricula with the intent of more adequately preparing the students for their future work in college. The colleges in turn, eager to capitalize on the additional preparation on the part of their entering students, have utilized tests known as Advanced Placement Tests, which measure the student's background and knowledge in order to place him in advanced courses and thus avoid the repetition of secondary school training. Strong secondary schools have been willing and able to prepare their students so successfully that many can enter second or third year college courses in their freshman year.

The College Entrance Examination Board on Advanced Placement supplies examinations to interested students at specified times. The results, along with the examinations themselves and the students' answers, are then distributed to the colleges and universities as the individual student might indicate. The cooperating schools will then admit the student to an advanced course, depending on the information gained from the examination and the answers. The placement of the student in the college program remains the prerogative of the individual college. Colleges have developed two different practices: either

advanced placement *with* or *without* credit. Both systems afford the incoming student with an advantage and good students should be encouraged to participate in the program. Many colleges do not belong to the Advanced Placement Program and administer their own placement examinations. Others equate one year of secondary school language study with one semester of college and place the student in the corresponding course without any formal testing program.

The Advanced Placement Program had increased considerably in the past few years and undoubtedly its significance will continue to grow as more secondary schools revise and improve their curricula. Advanced Placement is a means of helping the student benefit more from his college education by granting him recognition for his effort and success in his secondary school career.

A word of caution needs to be said with regard to this program. Without a well-qualified, near native language teacher the Advanced Placement Program can vitiate the progress of the student who has been trained in the audio-lingual approach by having the course turn out to be a series of lectures in English on the literary history of the foreign country accompanied by students laboriously decoding selections from the great masterpieces. The Program should not be entered upon unless the students have had a good four years of intensive audio-lingual training in the language as it is spoken today.

Suggested Readings

Brooks, Nelson. *Language and Language Learning: Theory and Practice.* Harcourt, 1964. Chapter XV.

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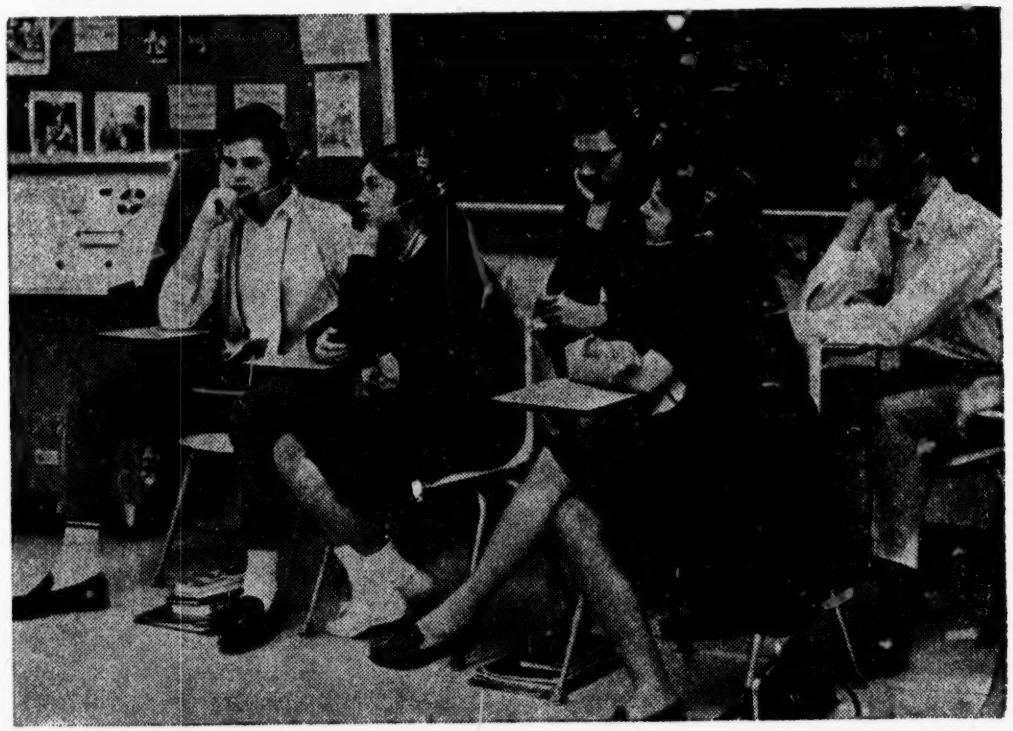

Chapter VII

THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM, THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE LABORATORY, AND THE ELECTRONIC CLASSROOM

Along with the changes in the objectives and techniques being used in foreign language instruction, facilities for modern foreign language classes must also change. The traditional classroom designed for reading and writing practice must be modified to allow for the use of electromechanical equipment. As adjuncts to the classroom, many schools are adding language laboratories, rooms with extensive installations of equipment for language listening and speaking practice. Some schools are attempting to combine the classroom and the language laboratory in a convertible installation usually referred to as the electronic classroom. These facilities are important tools in providing the teacher and the student with the best possible environment for learning the foreign language.

Much time must be devoted to planning these new facilities if each high school youth is to obtain through their use the maximum benefit in learning the new language. Logical steps in planning include the following:

1. The goals for each year of the foreign language study and plans for achieving these goals must be determined. Currently it is generally felt that pupils will use the laboratory most in beginning years when developing audio-lingual skills, and less later when reading and writing require larger amounts of time.[10] As materials are developed and teachers become more familiar with laboratory techniques, a continued extensive use of the laboratory can be observed at more advanced levels of instruction. Facilities provided for teachers should be flexible enough to be adaptable to the different individuals who will use them.
2. Teachers must decide which learning activities can best be done in the classroom and which are more advantageous for the laboratory. Careful integration between the classroom and the laboratory must be kept in mind.
3. The best planning of the foreign language classroom and the foreign language laboratory will result from teamwork. The team should include foreign language teachers on the staff, school administrators, consultants in foreign languages in local colleges and the State Department of Education. The team should seek the professional advice of architects, engineers, electronic technicians, and manufacturers' representatives and should employ a consultant to help plan and do the final checking of electronic equipment. The foreign language consultant of the State Department should be contacted for a listing of available consultants. For information about modern foreign language facilities write to the Director of the School Plant Construction section of the Department.
4. The team should visit foreign language classrooms and laboratories in other school systems. The members should observe these facilities in operation and be alert to any new improvement that will serve the foreign language teacher and improve the opportunities for learning.
5. Final plans and specifications should meet the team's requirements for electronic facilities which will best accomplish educational objectives in teaching foreign languages. Final plans should follow the instructions and guidelines in the Council of Chief State School Officers', *Purchase Guide for Programs in Science, Mathematics, Modern Foreign Languages*, pp. 26-28, 263-287 [11], and in the *Supplement to Purchase Guide for Programs in Science, Mathematics, Modern Foreign Languages.*[12]

The Foreign Language Classroom

In foreign language instruction, the classroom and the laboratory form an effective combination of tools for learning. The classroom is the facility in which the teacher introduces new material for later practice in the laboratory. Effective laboratory study results from preliminary drilling in the classroom.

Generally, after laboratory drill the classroom provides real opportunity for practice of the language as true communication between teacher and pupils and among pupils. Language is combined with other behavioral patterns, gestures, for example, which form the total communication process. Thus, the classroom provides a lifelike testing ground for use of the spoken language.

The language classroom is used for work in reading and writing in the foreign language. It must provide facilities for large and small group work. In short, it must be a flexible facility for perfecting the listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills.

Suggested Specifications for the Foreign Language Classroom

Changes in secondary school classrooms have resulted from changing methods of instruction and changing types of classroom activities. Nowhere is this more true than in the case of the teaching of modern foreign languages. The philosophy of teaching modern foreign languages has changed completely

[10] Hayes makes the following statement in *Language Laboratory Facilities*, on pages 21–22. "The special pupil-teacher rapport necessary in the elementary school, the shorter attention span of young children, and the special administrative problems at this level tend to militate against the use of full-scale language laboratories below grade seven . . . Continued research and experimentation on the use of such equipment in the elementary school should be encouraged, however, since concrete evidence of the way in which its effectiveness differs for different age groups is almost wholly lacking."

[11] Ginn and Co., 1959
[12] Ginn and Co., 1961

in the last two decades. Today the audio-lingual method with its emphasis on *listen, speak, read, write,* in that order, is winning growing acceptance by teachers of foreign languages and school administrators.

Special features are needed for the foreign language classroom to meet these new demands. The first concern will be the *size* of the foreign language classroom. The determining factors are as follows:

1. How many students are going to occupy this classroom in any single class period? What will be the largest number during any one class period? If one assumes that no class will exceed 30 students in number and that 30 square feet per pupil is allowed, the classroom will have to measure approximately 900 square feet.
   It must be kept in mind that the number of students who will occupy the room at one time and the activities they are to perform are basic in planning the size of the classroom.
2. Large group teaching is a possibility that must be considered in making plans for the foreign language classroom. Enthusiasm for experimentation on the part of the authorities and the foreign language teachers may open possibilities for the use of large classrooms — all purpose rooms, little theaters, or auditoriums — as foreign language classrooms. The foreign language laboratory supplements the large classroom for additional individual work.
3. Each classroom should have the proper *acoustical treatment*. The ceiling of the room should be acoustically treated. Parallel blank walls should be treated on one wall or tiles may be installed on the top portion of several walls.
4. Each classroom should be supplied with a loud-speaker of high quality response, 36-14,000 cps.; crossover at 2,000 cps., capacity, 25 watts, impedance 16 ohms. The speaker should be centrally mounted on the front wall seven feet from the floor but clear of the wall screen. It should be possible to play the tape recorder, the record player, or to listen to the sound track of a film through the speaker when desired.
5. The *lighting* should be incandescent or static resistors should be installed on fluorescent lights.
   Adequate *electrical outlets* should be provided. Adequate electrical outlets are defined as six outlets located as follows — two at the front of the room; four additional outlets located in such a way that two are distributed on each side, equidistant front and back, plugmold at the rear of the room with ten outlets minimum. All outlets should be 36 inches above the floor.
6. The *chalkboard* should be approximately 20 lineal feet, 42 inches high on the front wall. Consideration should be given to having additional chalkboard on one side of the room.
   A *tackboard* that is approximately 20 lineal feet, 42 inches high should be provided on one side and/or the rear of the room.
   A *display area* that consists of a combination map rail and tackstrip at the top rail of the chalk and tackboards should be provided.
7. At the rear of the foreign language classroom at the proper height, a *student work counter* should be provided. The counter should be not less than 20 feet long and three feet wide. Ten headphones should be provided at this location. The ten student positions must be connected to the program source at the teacher's desk. Wiring between the program source and the student position may run via a flat floor mold conduit or along a side wall. Each student position should have a headphone jack and a volume control.
   An alternate student work counter is also available. Instead of each position having simply a headphone jack and volume control, each student position could have a standard half-track tape recorder with headphones. This alternate plan allows each student to make his own copy of the teacher's lesson material on tape and to proceed with his study of it at his own rate of learning.

The Foreign Language Laboratory

A language laboratory is an installation of electromechanical equipment providing the student with tape to practice the audio-lingual aspects of the language just as a conventional language textbook gives the student practice in reading and writing.

The basic principle supporting the use of a foreign language laboratory are important in understanding its value in foreign language learning. They are as follows:

1. A language laboratory can supplement and implement the work done in the classroom, but it cannot replace the teacher. In fact, the presence of that teacher as monitor in the laboratory has a demonstrably beneficial effect on learning.
2. Materials used in the laboratory must be well-prepared and organized, and must be utilized in close correlation with class work.
3. Practice in speaking and listening reinforce and are reinforced by reading and writing, thus utilizing all possible avenues of learning.
4. Laboratory recordings can provide a variety of native voices as models for pronunciation and intonation. Furthermore, they offer the possibility of representing regional variations in native speech patterns.
5. Recordings made at normal speed of speaking can be listened to many times, thus eliminating the temptation of slowing down the pace and distorting the articulation, pronunciation, and intonation of the utterances.
6. Tape programs can provide authentic, consistent, untiring models of speech for imitation and drill.
7. The use of headphones and booths gives the student a sense of isolation and an intimate contact with the language and an equal clarity of sound is assured all students.
8. The language laboratory helps a student overcome his nervousness and self-consciousness in oral expression by allowing him to make his initial errors in private.
9. A language laboratory provides an opportunity for all students to drill individually and simultaneously thereby helping them to achieve oral competence.
10. The language laboratory allows for individual differences as it can accommodate simultaneously students in need of special remedial drill, groups working on the regular daily assignments, and advanced students working for enrichment or with accelerated materials.
11. In the laboratory the foreign language teacher is able to focus his at-

tention on the individual student's performance without having to interrupt the work of the group.

12. Laboratory work permits the student to correct his response immediately by comparing it with that of the master voice. It also facilitates correction by the teacher who can listen to the student recording.
13. The laboratory facilitates the testing of listening comprehension and the speaking skill.
14. Teachers are provided with an opportunity to improve their own proficiency in understanding and speaking the language.
15. The teacher can use the time formerly used in routine class drills to concentrate on imaginative and flexible language practice during the lessons conducted in the foreign language classroom.
16. In order for the language laboratory to become an integral part of the foreign language learning process, authorities in the field now recommend that a minimum of two class hours a week be spent in the laboratory with monitoring by the instructor.

Technical Aspects of the Foreign Language Laboratory

Kinds of Language Laboratories. A language laboratory generally consists of a room occupied by student booths or stalls. The booths are wired to a central control console which distributes programs for pupil audio-lingual study. Within this basic concept there are, however, a number of different types of language laboratories which serve different purposes:

a. In the *audio-passive laboratory* the student simply listens to materials recorded by the teacher or by a native speaker. If the student responds during pauses on the tape, he neither hears himself through headphones nor records his responses. In *Language Laboratory Facilities,* Alfred S. Hayes [13] has identified systems of this type as those employing
   1) a tape recorder or phonograph with a built-in loud speaker
   2) a tape recorder or phonograph with an external amplifier and a high quality speaker, or speakers, installed in or on walls or the ceiling of the room
   3) a tape recorder(s), or tape player(s), or a phonograph, with individual headphones
b. The next basic type of laboratory is an *audio-active laboratory*. Here the student hears himself electronically as he responds to the stimuli on the master tape. This system consists of the following equipment: program sources, headphones for group practice, and microphones and amplification to make the system audio-active.
c. There is a third basic type of laboratory installation called the *audio-active comparative system*. This system is the same as the audio-active one described above with the addition of separate recording facilites such as a tape deck for individual students.

Both the audio-active and the audio-active-comparative laboratories may have facilities for intercommunication between teacher and pupil, pupil and pupil, and monitoring devices from the program center.

Laboratories may be used for either group or individual study. In a group-study laboratory all students listen at the same time to a recording originating from a remote source, a console. The individual-study laboratory is one in which each student position is equipped with recording and/or playback equipment and each student has a copy of the teacher's master tape which he can stop, start, and rewind as he wishes. Such an individual-study laboratory may also be used for group study.

The audio-active individual-study laboratory with facilities for recording is usually the most desirable. Such a laboratory best takes into consideration individual differences among pupils, permits individual testing, and allows for flexible use. However, it is also the most difficult to maintain and operate. Service costs will inevitably be higher.

2. *Physical facilities.* The size of the foreign language laboratory is an important consideration. The facilities of the foreign language laboratory should be large enough to accommodate the number of students in the larger class, additional facilities needed in reserve for occasional use for individual study or makeup, plus reserve units for use when breakdowns occur. A minimum of 30 square feet of laboratory space per pupil should be allowed. If the largest class has 30 pupils, the school should consider installing 33 to 35 positions.

The equipment in the foreign language laboratory will consist of the teacher console, the student booths, the electromechanical equipment for the student positions, and other general electromechanical equipment like a record player, a portable tape recorder, and a loud speaker.[14]

Other recommendations that are often included in the specifications for foreign language laboratories are:

a. Office space and work area, about 10 feet by 10 feet, should be available immediately adjacent to and connected with the laboratory. A window from the office permitting visual supervision of the laboratory is advisable. The work area should be equipped for such things as editing and duplicating tapes, listening to student recordings, previewing visual materials, listening to pre-recorded materials, and storing tapes.
b. To insure good recordings, a recording room, about 10 feet by 10 feet should be provided. It should be equipped with double doors or a Riverbank type door, acoustical treatment on ceiling and walls, incandescent lights, and a silent heating and ventilation system.
c. If possible, a projection room centered behind the rear of the laboratory should be provided for projection of visual materials upon a screen in front of the room. Otherwise, it should be possible to use audio-visual equipment from the rear of the laboratory. Suggested equipment includes an opaque projector, an overhead projector, and a permanently-mounted wall screen, a slide and filmstrip projector, a motion picture projector.

Maintenance of the Laboratory

Servicing and maintaining the language laboratory are important to the successful operation of the foreign language laboratory. Three types of maintenance are required: (a) regular preventative maintenance, (b) a semi-yearly checkup and overhaul, and (c) emergency and routine servicing.

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[13] U.S. Dept. of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1963. Hayes' text also lists the principle functions of each type of laboratory, along with their advantages and limitations.

[14] See suggested specifications for this equipment listed in *Foreign Language Facilities in High School.* Report of FL Research Commission, issued by the Minnesota School Facilities Council. Jermaine Arendt and Wm. Scanlan, eds. 1962.

Regular Preventative Maintenance

Preventative maintenance actually involves simple weekly maintenance by a laboratory director or other qualified person. This care helps insure high quality sound and mechanical operation in the foreign language laboratory.

Weekly maintenance includes the following: Cleaning of recording playback heads, idlers, and capstans. Rubbing alcohol is the safest and least expensive cleaning fluid to use. Q-tips are preferable because of their ease of handling. Demagnetization of recording playback heads. A standard head demagnetizer should be used. The bare metal tips of the demagnetizer should be covered with electrical tape to prevent the tips from scratching the recording playback heads.

Setting and tightening of the screws of all switches.

Checking and adjusting brake tension on the tape decks.

Checking and adjusting pressure pads that hold tape against the heads.

Semi-Yearly Overhaul

A checkup and overhaul by a qualified technician is recommended twice a year. Such an overhaul should include the replacement of weak tubes or transistors, the adjustment of brake and belt tensions, and the alignment of the recording and playback heads. Sometimes the laboratory director and others who have had experience in laboratory maintenance may be able to handle these operations.

Emergency and Routine Servicing

Particularly during the first few months, the laboratory may develop malfunctions and need adjustments. A trouble sheet should be maintained for logging such difficulties. Usually mounted on a clipboard at the console, the trouble sheet should contain a complete record of operational troubles for ready reference by service personnel. Sometimes apparent malfunctions occur because teachers and pupils using the laboratory fail to operate the equipment correctly. The problem can often be corrected by adjusting earphone, turning the appropriate switch, or adjusting the volume, for example.

Service Personnel

Sometimes the laboratory director or others on the staff who have had experience in laboratory or electronic maintenance may be able to handle these operations. However, no teacher should be expected to perform maintenance tasks in addition to full-time teaching. If no faculty member is qualified or can be released for maintenance tasks, it is wise to negotiate a service contract with the installing firm or a reputable local electronics firm to insure prompt emergency and routine service.

The Electronic Classroom

Many schools wish to have some of the advantages of the language laboratory, but feel that the facility must be contained in the foreign language classroom. Others feel that there is great merit in having electronics equipment always accessible so that some tape drills may be used during every class hour. This desire to combine the advantages of both classroom and language laboratory has stimulated the development of the so-called "electronic classroom," a classroom which may be readily converted into a laboratory-like classroom.

In the electronic classroom, each student position, desk or table, is wired for electronic components. Yet in most other respects, the electronic classroom is not radically different from any other foreign language classroom.

The electronic classroom may basically be an audio-passive, an audio-active, or an audio-active comparative. See *Technical Aspects of the Foreign Language Laboratory, Kinds of Laboratories*, found earlier in this section. For practical reasons it is usually, however, audio-passive or audio-active.

The furniture of the electronic classroom varies. Many schools make no attempt to create individual isolation other than that provided by headphones. In this case, conventional student desks or tables may be wired.

Sometimes pupil positions are equipped with convertible booth equipment. This equipment features folding partitions which create some student isolation when raised. When lowered, such partitions generally cover the electronic equipment for conventional classroom activities.

When partial installations of electro-mechanical equipment are made in the language classroom, they may be installed in conventional language laboratory booths at the rear or sides of the room. Use of booths helps to eliminate distractions between pupils working at electronic positions and those engaged in other activities. All pupil furniture which is wired should be permanently secured to the floor to prevent breakage of wiring.

Other desirable features of the electronic classroom will be found in this section under *The Foreign Language Classroom* and *The Foreign Language Laboratory*. A motion picture projector, opaque projector, overhead projector, slide and filmstrip projectors are desirable auxiliary equipment.

A small room, about 75 square feet, at the rear of the electronic classroom is highly desirable. This room can serve for storage of equipment and materials. In addition, such a room should provide work and recording space, and serve as a projection room for visual aids. The equipment for the electronic classroom should be maintained just as that of the language laboratory.

Student Behavior

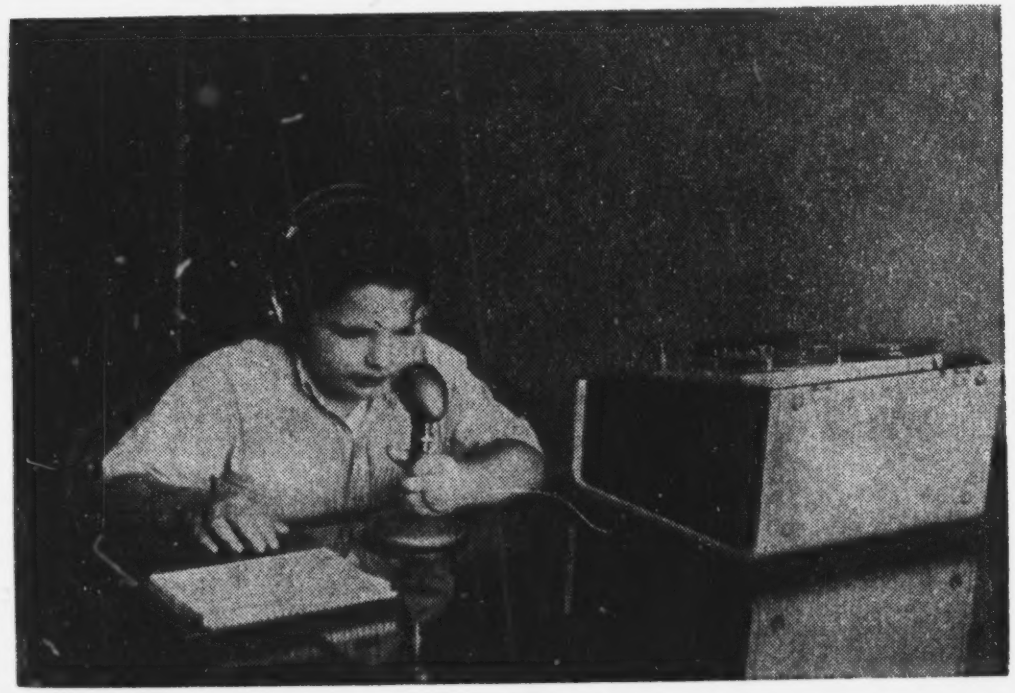
Discipline problems in the foreign language laboratory or the electronic classroom result from varied causes: (1) A lack of definitive instructions concerning the operation of the equipment, (2) omission of specific rules concerning the general behavior in the language laboratory, (3) the use of coordinated material which is either uninteresting, too difficult, or non-challenging.

The discipline problems result in destruction of equipment, inattention, and disturbance of others in the laboratory or classroom.

Certain procedures have proved effective in eliminating or reducing discipline problems in the language laboratory.

1. Students should understand why they are using laboratory facilities. Before the laboratory is used for language instruction, an orientation session should be devoted to explaining the purpose of laboratory sessions.
2. Students should be assigned a permanent position in the laboratory. They must be held responsible for equipment at their positions. Any damage must be reported immediately to the person in charge.
3. Students should be carefully instructed in correct procedures for operation and care of equipment.
4. Work materials such as tapes and worksheets should be distributed or checked out by monitors or the teacher in charge. Students should not take materials from the cabinets.

5. Students should understand that the laboratory is a *work* room, where socializing is not permitted. Students should be expected to work on laboratory homework while in the laboratory.
6. Time must be allotted for end-of-the-hour housekeeping tasks. Tapes must be returned to cabinets, equipment turned off, headphones hung up, for example.
7. The teacher should have a commanding position from the console for laboratory administration. Some schools have installed an anti-pilfering mirror similar to those used in supermarkets and retail stores. Others prefer glass fronts in the booths permitting the teacher better control of the class.



Chapter VIII

PROGRAMED LEARNING AND TEACHING MACHINES

Learning With Programed Materials

Many educators are becoming increasingly excited about possibilities for learning through so-called programed materials. Sometimes used with a presentation device called a teaching machine, programed materials organize a body of learning in small units or steps. Defining learning as change in behavior, the author of the program attempts to carefully control or shape the learner's progress until a new desired behavior termed terminal behavior is achieved. Commonly the student is called on to practice using the new knowledge at least once for each unit or step; thus the student is required to be continuously active in the learning process. As the student progresses step by step in the learning task, he proceeds only at a rate consistent with his demonstrated understanding. He does not move on to more difficult material until he has completely mastered all steps needed for understanding and application. Finally, at each step in the learning process, he is given immediate knowledge about the correctness of his responses to questions and problems. His correct responses are confirmed and his mistakes are corrected.

The programed lesson has as its objective teaching a body of material with little or no outside help. While either a conventional textbook or programed course may be used for self-instruction, the programed materials are generally superior because they apply principles of learning in structuring the course. Two such principles, active participation by the student and immediate confirmation were mentioned above.

Furthermore, a programed sequence is superior to ordinary course materials in another way, it is, or should be, tried out again and again on the kind of learner for whom it is intended. If the learner fails to learn, the program, not the learner, is at fault and revisions are made in faulty items.

Possible Uses of Programed Learning

In most cases, programed materials have been written to provide basic instruction for a complete course. In this case, the course is primarily self-instructional with the teacher providing such supplementary activities as he wishes. Sometimes the basic instruction may be provided by another medium such as television or the classroom teacher with programed materials providing correlated follow-up activities. A third potential use for programed materials is as remedial instruction. In this instance, a student who has been absent from school or who has fallen behind the class for some other reason, can easily review material which he has not learned. Programed instruction is also being regarded as having potential for providing enrichment for rapid learners. Such students might obtain broader experiences in one foreign language or even studying two languages concurrently, one programed and one not, or both programed.

For students who suddenly learn they are going to a foreign country within weeks or months, programed materials may offer an opportunity to develop considerable language skill even though no teacher in the school knows the language.

Self-Instructional Materials for Foreign Language Learning

Auto-instructional learning materials are now being written for foreign language study. Like more conventional learning materials, programed materials vary considerably in the objectives or terminal behavior they seek to achieve. A number of them seek to provide the equivalent of a full year's instruction and some of these are based on the principles of audio-lingual instruction. In these latter programs, mastery of the sound system of the target language precedes the teaching of reading and writing, and study of all grammar is guided by linguistic principles. Current programs for foreign language study commonly make use of tape recordings and an accompanying programed text. The so-called teaching machine is a tape recorder or a tape deck in a language laboratory booth.

The nature of programed learning is perhaps best understood by examining a sample foreign language program. Note that the objectives in the short program below are very precise and that the programer, or author, indicates that the program has undergone considerable testing and revision.

Initial Frames for a Programed Unit of Audio-Lingual German

The following frames are the beginning of a unit of programed instruction designed to teach the concept of gender to American students of German. Since most nouns in English do not possess gender, the American student often regards gender systems in other languages as unimportant and consequently does not learn them. However, in German and many other languages a great part of the grammar system is based on gender. When the student wishes to speak or write language, he must know or have ready access to the correct gender for nouns he wishes to use. When writing, a dictionary will suffice as a source. However, when one wishes to speak German, the noun and its article must be an inseparable unit in the mind of the reader to be pulled out and slipped into a sentence pattern when needed.

Thus, this unit is written with the idea that the student's attention should be fixed on gender and that he should learn all nouns with their articles if these words are to be part of his conversational repertoire.

The work with frames depends on a tape machine to carry the bulk of the instruction since the course is meant to stress audio-lingual skills. Reading and writing are secondary and indeed are introduced only to further fix the student's attention on the article-noun relationship.

The twenty-six frames included here have been tested on five subjects and the program has undergone considerable revision as a result.

The material which would ordinarily have been on tape is included in the printed frames. The student responses are also included. The letter "T" indicates that the material should be on tape. The letter "S" signifies a student response. The symbol "*" indicates that the student is to listen to a tape passage.

The student is to read down the page activating his tape recorder when indicated. He is to respond orally or in writing for each step or frame and check his answers on the tape or in the right-hand column below space for his written answer. It may be helpful for him to mask the answers with another sheet of blank paper until he accustoms himself to thinking it out rather than simply reading the answer.

1. In your previous study you may have noticed that German seems to have different words for the English word "the." "The" is called a definite article. German has a number of ——— articles for the single English definite article "the."

definite

2. Listen to the three sentences on tape and determine how many different definite articles are used.*
   T Der Freund is hier
   T Die Bibliothek ist hier
   T Das Heft ist hier
   There were three different words for "the."

three

3. Listen to the tape sentence and repeat after the model voice.*
   T Der Freund ist hier
   S Der Freund ist hier
   In this sentence, the word for "the" is der. Thus, the German definite article is ———.

der

4. Now listen to the model voice and repeat the utterance.*
   T Der Freund ist gut
   S Der Freund ist gut
   In the sentence which you repeated, the definite article for the noun is ———.

der

5. One might guess from the preceding that a class of German nouns can be called *r* words.

der

6. Not all German nouns are "der" words, however. Listen to the tape and see if you can hear another definite article. Repeat after the model voice.*
   T Die Freundin ist hier
   S Die Freundin ist hier
   Would you say that this definite article would rhyme better with English "see" or "bye"?

see

7. Listen to the model sentence and repeat.*
   T Die Freundin ist hier
   S Die Freundin ist hier
   The Germans print this definite article "die."
   Therefore "der" and "*e*" are German words for "the."

die

8. Repeat after the model voice.*
   T Die Freundin
   S Die Freundin
   Though we may say that die rhymes with English "see", it sounds shorter/longer than the English word.

shorter

9. Repeat each sentence twice after the model voice.*
   T Der Freund ist hier
   S Der Freund ist hier
   S Der Freund ist hier
   T Die Freundin ist hier
   S Die Freundin ist hier
   S Die Freundin ist hier
   The sentence using the "die" word was the (first, second).

second

10. Repeat each sentence after the model voice.*

T Der Freund ist hier
S Der Freund ist hier
T Die Freundin ist hier
S Die Freundin ist hier

The sentence using the "der" word was the (first, second).

first

11. The nouns and articles being learned are printed below. Play the tape and read the words aloud after the model voice.*

Der Freund
Die Freundin

Now copy the words

Der Freund
Die Freundin

12. Now play the tape, repeat the words after the model and note which noun and article go together.*

T Der Freund
T Die Freundin

Draw a line from the article to the noun with which it belongs

die Freudin
der Freund

der Freund
die Freundin

13. Listen to the model sentence. Then note that the tape voice provides a new noun and article. What does the second speaker do with them?*

T Der Freund ist hier
T Die Freundin
T Die Freundin ist hier

The second speaker replaces the "der" word in the sentence with a ——— word.

die

14. This time you replace the "der" word with the "die" word supplied. Repeat the "die" word and complete the sentence. Check your response with the answer given on the tape after the pause.*

T Der Freundin ist hier
T Die Freundin
S Die Freundin ist hier
T Die Freundin ist hier

The two definite articles used in the taped sentences are ——— and ———.

der, die

15. You may have found that the pause on the tape was not long enough for you to respond. If you did not have time to finish your response, you will have to speak faster/slower

faster

16. The tape voice will now ask a question. Repeat the question after the voice, then listen for the answer and repeat it.*

T Ist der Freund hier?
S Ist der Freund hier?
T Nein die Freudin ist hier.
S Nein die Freundin ist hier.

Along with the change from Freund to Freundin was a change from der to ——.

die

17. The tape voice will ask you whether your (boy) friend is here. Reply no but your (girl) friend is. Check your response against the tape.*

T Ist der Freund hier?
S Nein, aber die Freundin is hier.
T Nein, aber die Freundin ist hier.

You should have changed der to ——— to accompany the change in nouns.

die

18. The tape voice will now ask you

whether your (girl) friend is here. Reply that she isn't but your (boy) friend is. Then check your answer with the taped reply given after the pause.*

T Ist die Freundin hier?
S Nein, aber der Freund ist hier.
T Nein, aber der Freund ist hier.

You should change die Freundin to ——— Freund.

19. Listen to the tape and repeat the sentences.*

T Wo ist der Freund?
S Wo ist der Freund?
T Wo ist die Bibliothek?
S Wo ist die Bibliothek?
T Wo ist das Buch?
S Wo ist das Buch?

The third class of nouns may be termed "das" words. The other two are ——— and ———.

20. Repeat after the tape.*

T Wo ist der Freund?
S Wo ist der Freund?
T Wo ist die Freundin?
S Wo ist die Freundin?
T Wo ist das Buch?
S Wo ist das Buch?

The first two nouns are der Freund, die Freundin. The third noun is *s* Buch

21. Repeat after the tape. Then substitute the "das" word which you will hear. Check your answer with the tape.*

T Wo ist die Freundin?
S Wo ist die Freundin?
T Wo ist das Buch?
S Wo ist das Buch?

Draw a line from the noun to its article.

das Freundin
die Buch

das Freundin

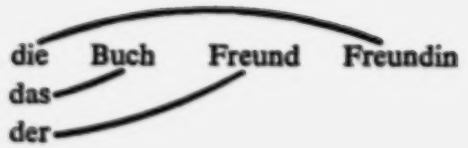
die Buch

22. Repeat the first sentence after the model voice. Then use the new nouns supplied in the sentence. Check your response with the tape.*

T Der Freund ist hier.
S Der Freund ist hier.
T Die Freundin —— ——.
S Die Freundin ist hier.
T Das Buch —— ——.
S Das Buch ist hier.
T Der Freund —— ——.
S Der Freund ist hier.

Draw a line from the article to its corresponding noun

die Buch Freund Freundin
das
der



23. Repeat the first sentence after the model voice. Then use the new nouns supplied in the sentence. Check your response with the tape.*

T Der Freund ist hier.
S Der Freund ist hier.
T —— Freundin —— ——.
S Die Freundin ist hier.
T Die Freundin ist hier.
T —— Buch —— ——.
S Das Buch ist hier.
T Das Buch ist hier.
T —— Freund —— ——.
S Der Freund ist hier.
T Der Freund ist hier.

German nouns can be said to fall in three classes. They are ——, —— and —— words.

der, die, das

24. Repeat after the tape and notice which class of nouns are used.*

T Der Freund ist da druben.
S Der Freund ist da druben.
T Der Tisch ist da druben.
S Der Tisch ist da druben.
T Der Nachtisch ist da druben.
S Der Nachtisch ist da druben.

All nouns used in the tape sentences were —— words

_____

der

25. Repeat after the tape and decide which class of nouns are used.*

T Wo ist der Nachtisch?
S Wo ist der Nachtisch?
T Wo ist der Tisch?
S Wo ist der Tisch?
T Wo ist der Freund?
S Wo ist der Freund?

All nouns used in the tape sentence were —— words.

_____

der

26. Listen to the first sentence and repeat it. Then use each of the new nouns supplied in the sentence. Check your answer with the tape.*

T Wo ist der Freund?
S Wo ist der Freund?
T —— der Tisch?
S Wo ist der Tisch?
T Wo ist der Tisch?
T —— —— der Nachtisch?
S Wo ist der Nachtisch?
T Wo ist der Nachtisch?

Although all the above words are *der* words, we know other nouns which are not. These are called —— and —— words.

_____

die, das

Role of the Teacher

Considerable discussion has revolved around the role of the teacher when self-instructional materials and devices carry much of the instructional burden. Obviously, if programing has been successful, the teacher will not have to explain the text constantly or engage in question-answer recitation activities so common in classrooms today. However, the teacher will have to select proper programs to accomplish learning objectives just as he selects a textbook today. Secondly, he must select proper supplementary learning activities that will complement the self-instructional materials. He will have time to develop social and expressive skills.

Under normal circumstances, programed learning materials should not carry the entire instructional load. There are many varied experiences which form a part of a good educational program. Programs will never conceivably replace group learning, discussions, reading good books and articles, writing reports, oral presentation of skits and reports, and making field trips. Students, furthermore, receive the greatest benefit from self-instructional materials if they have some preparation or orientation for self-study activities. After a unit of work, they should engage in some activity requiring them to apply what they have learned. Such follow-up may be individual and/or group learning with the teacher, other conversation and listening practices, viewing a film, reading a carefully structured story, or writing a carefully structured composition. It is particularly important to remember that no matter how effective programed learning may be, the student must have an opportunity to use language for meaningful communication with his teacher and his fellow students. Much teacher experimentation will be necessary to establish the proper blend of various teaching aids and methods ranging from large group instruction through television or films, to individual study with programed materials.

Selecting Programed Materials

Since programed materials for foreign language study are relatively new and extended sequences are not yet available, schools are advised to consider them only for experimental use. Even when programs become more generally available in extended sequences, school systems will be advised to engage in experimentation prior to large scale adoption. However, for experienced teachers who wish to try out these new materials now, the following guidelines for the selection and use of programed materials are provided. It is not enough to read advertising brochures describing the programs. Experienced teachers must study the materials to determine whether or not they are desirable.

1. Programs must meet the predetermined goals of the foreign language department
2. Vocabulary, information, and predetermined skills must be appropriate for the intended learners
3. Style and degree of difficulty must be appropriate for the group
4. Steps of the program must provide for a careful, logical progression of subject matter
5. Information as to how the program has been tested and what revisions have been made must be available
6. Data should be available about what students actually learn from the program and what degree of retention has been achieved. Information regarding the conditions under which this data was obtained is also necessary
7. Teachers who plan to use the materials should acquaint themselves with some of the literature in the field and if possible attend a workshop or college course on programed learning

Administrative provisions must be made for students progressing at different rates through the program

Suggested Readings

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Chapter IX

FOREIGN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION BY EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION

Educational television, born after World War II, has nevertheless already assumed an important place in the educational programs of many school systems. A wide range of subjects has been taught to learners in elementary school, junior and senior high school, and college. Television is making possible an explosive expansion in elementary foreign language study, and numerous educational television foreign language courses have become firmly established in the elementary grades. In many instances, educational television provides the main medium of instruction in the foreign language courses.

Advantages of Using Educational Television to Teach Children

The elementary child lends himself very well to instruction by television. Children in the elementary grades value TV highly. They listen to television programs seeking fantasy, escape, excitement, and recreation. While they do not usually watch television with the intent to be taught or to put forth effort, they are accustomed to enjoying, concentrating on, and learning from television. It is, therefore, the goal of educational television stations to develop programs that appeal to the interest of children and at the same time provide a learning experience. When teaching is done by a skillful instructor, educational television may achieve an unusual immediacy with the child viewer. This is, of course, highly desirable for learning.

Advantages of Using Educational Television to Teach Foreign Languages

Educational television provides other instructional advantages. The educational television lessons are usually more carefully planned than the conventional classroom lessons. Because of the careful planning, more content can be covered in a class session. One or more of the gifted TV teachers can reach a large number of students each of whom is supplied with a front seat view.

Greater possibilities for program variety exist because of the many resources available to the television teacher. Television can provide life-like dramatizations and skits that are often difficult to produce in the classroom. Furthermore, the lessons can be visualized more concretely because of the teacher's access to and use of a large number of realia and visual aids. Use of such materials increases the possibility of achieving the cultural objective of a foreign language course. In a sense TV can transport the learner to the foreign land, and thus reduce the need for translation to establish meaning. This acculturation may force the student to think in the target language. Complex or simple learning experiences may be presented in telecasts. Educational television can develop understandings and ideas or teach facts.

Educational television also provides for effective use of time and space. Rooms do not have to be darkened, thus the students are free to write. The machine is silent, in contrast to a film projector or a slide projector. The quality of the sound is usually better than that of a film.

Educational television can be used as a medium of instruction regardless of the chronological or mental age of the child. Indeed, observers have noted that children of lower aptitude seem particularly to benefit from educational television instruction as compared to conventional classroom instruction. Educational television usually requires the student to accept more responsibility for his own learning. At the same time that pupils are learning from telecasts, classroom teachers may be improving their own knowledge of subject matter or benefiting from observing techniques used by the educational television teacher. One of the remarkable aspects of educational television is the close rapport which can be established between TV teacher and pupil. The talented television teacher can develop teaching techniques which enable him to establish an almost personal relationship with the student. Rapt attention and enthusiasm characterize classes taught by many excellent educational television offerings.

The Effectiveness of Educational Television Instruction

Much can be said about the effectiveness of educational television instruction. Television teaching has often proved to be as effective as regular instruction when a classroom teacher works with the telecast. Children at all levels can learn from educational television instruction, and sometimes learning is significantly more than that in the conventional classroom. The rate of forgetting is about the same as that of regular instruction.

Problems and Disadvantages of Educational Television Instruction

Teaching foreign languages by television also presents problems and has some disadvantages. The most important weaknesses of educational television are its inability to adapt to individual differences and the disruption of the normal response relationship between the student and teacher that is so inherent in the development of language skill. The TV teacher cannot know 50,000 children personally; he cannot give personal attention to the students; he cannot adjust the pace of the lesson to what is happening in the classroom; he cannot maintain discipline; and he cannot encourage the shy student or restrain the boisterous one.

Variance in the quality and type of instruction, organization, and content of the foreign language educational television courses also can be a problem. To a large extent the success of foreign language courses is dependent upon these very elements. Educational television programs do not always bring the most qualified teacher into the classroom, and neither is the organization of the course or its content always the best that is available.

Scheduling is an important aspect of using any educational television programs in the classroom. Above all, the lessons must be scheduled at desirable times and viewed in desirable locations to avoid interruptions. Using a

film is sometimes more convenient as films are much easier to schedule into the school program.

Acoustical problems and mechanical failures sometimes cause difficulties in viewing and hearing the telecasts. However, a more common school problem is the lack of enough television sets so that overly large groups must watch a telecast at one time. The confusion and tension that result from these problems can adversely affect the educational television foreign language program.

Selecting An Educational Television Foreign Language Program

The selection of an educational television foreign language program or programs for the school system involves many considerations. The administrators should be aware of the advantages and disadvantages of educational television foreign language instruction. In addition, pre-recorded and/or projected television programs must be studied carefully in order to determine their probable effectiveness. Note: *The TV teacher must be an outstanding teacher.* She must present an excellent imitative model of the foreign language and she must be well-acquainted and trained in the audio-lingual approach. She must also be especially alert to learning difficulties that children will have with the new language and plan in advance to cope with the majority of these difficulties. Furthermore, she must have to a considerable degree the ability to make children want to learn.

The organization and content of the foreign language should be examined thoroughly. An educational television foreign language program must be a well-planned program that is carefully adapted to each of the grades it is intended to teach. This task of evaluating the program is not easy as most of elementary school foreign language programs contain original material, much of which has not been proven to be adapted to each grade. Old foreign language texts may not be used to establish standards for comparison since the audio-lingual method does not adhere to the methods and techniques of the traditional grammar-oriented textbooks. Foreign language specialists who are knowledgeable in audio-lingual methods and techniques should examine the program.

The teachers' guides and directed follow-up lessons should be examined to find out if they inform and direct the classroom teacher who works with the educational television foreign language programs, in a clearly defined manner. If workbooks are part of the ETV program, teachers' editions should be supplied, along with adequate instructions on when and how the workbooks are to be used in the classroom. When tapes accompany the programs they should present clear and accurate reproductions of the foreign language. It is also important for these tapes to function as integral segments of the entire educational television course.

Some educational television foreign language programs have constructed tests to accompany the program. Valid and reliable tests will help the school systems evaluate their own programs. A number of elementary school educational television courses present foreign language telecasts two or three times a week. The other days of the week the classroom teacher either uses tapes or follows step-by-step directions in presenting a teacher directed follow-up lesson.

Well-prepared educational television foreign language courses will have a sufficient number of supplementary tape programs to be used whenever they are needed. With untested courses there should be provision for necessary revision of scripts after initial uses. Continuity is essential in a well-planned program.

The potential effectiveness of educational television is severely limited without the help of an itinerant or helping teacher to work directly with classroom teachers. This fact has been discovered in studies directed to evaluate TV instruction alone versus TV instruction combined with directed follow-up. Furthermore, frequent contact between the TV teacher and the helping teacher or teachers will help make a successful program.

How to Improve Educational Television Foreign Language Instruction

Improving the foreign language educational television instruction has been a major concern of school systems now teaching foreign language via television. Many school systems assess their program as they go along. They study ways to improve it, and then plan and budget for its future development. Areas that are often included in their considerations are the following: (1) arrangements for the watching of the foreign language telecasts, (2) the follow-up lessons, (3) the role of the classroom teacher, (4) the role of the foreign language specialist, (5) in-service programs, (6 suitable course content, and (7) the role of the parents.

The Classroom

The best atmosphere is not always present when the children *watch the foreign language telecasts.* A few guidelines will improve the atmosphere and the attention of the students. First of all, the desks should be clear, unless the TV lesson requires the use of paper, pencils, or crayons. The children should be seated in three or four rows arranged in a semi-circle. An aisle should divide them into two groups. Since seating children very close together encourages inattention, this should be avoided if possible.

Follow-Up Activities

The teacher's role before, during, and after the telecast will vary according to her ability to use the foreign language. If she is capable, she should provide a few minutes of warm-up before the telecast begins. This could be a song, game, or pattern drill. During the telecast she must show *her* interest in the program by paying careful attention to it. She must demand participation and attention on the part of the pupils. It is helpful to have the teacher walk quietly about the room, looking and listening to check on student participation. Meanwhile she can also be repeating *softly* along with the children. After the telecast a short follow-up to reinforce learning is desirable.

Foreign language instruction without *follow-up lessons* by the classroom teacher produces inadequate achievement, especially in comprehension and the spontaneous use of the language. Thus, the follow-up lesson to a large degree determines the success of an ETV foreign language program. The available foreign language ETV programs vary as to the content of the follow-up lessons. Some programs supply tapes or records for the teacher to play, while others produce step-by-step lesson plans for the teacher to follow in conducting follow-up activities. The latter technique is more effective if the teacher has the necessary background in language.

The Role of the Classroom Teacher

Questions are frequently asked regarding the role of the classroom teacher

in educational television when it is used to provide foreign language instruction. Does she have any role? Can non-fluent teachers be used successfully in teaching foreign languages in the elementary school? What is the role of the specialist?

To begin with, using *the classroom teacher* has numerous advantages for foreign language learning provided she sets up a good learning atmosphere in her room. The classroom teacher knows her children and she knows how to teach. She can provide life and enthusiasm through her attitude and her participation in the program. If she is a good teacher, she can adapt to individual differences when she uses the tape drills and in the directed follow-up lessons, thus supplementing the TV lessons.

Every foreign language classroom teacher must know what the children are expected to do. She must, therefore, be well acquainted with the program and be constantly informed about changes, problems, and results of the ETV foreign language instruction. She does not have to be a linguist. As she is not a specialist she is not asked to produce a model of the spoken word. However, foreign language teaching by the classroom teacher does require the same enthusiasm that she employs in her other teaching.

The classroom teacher can usually be classified as a non-fluent teacher or a moderately fluent teacher of the language. If she is non-fluent it is assumed that she has not studied the target language. If she is considered moderately fluent then it can be assumed that she has some knowledge of the language, perhaps two or three years of study.

Research has indicated that even a moderately fluent teacher has advantages over the non-fluent. However, interest and motivation are as significant as the teacher's language skill in the follow-up activity. Informal ratings of the teacher's follow-up correlate positively with the performance of the class. The non-fluent and moderately fluent teachers operate better with beginning groups than with learners who have had several years of instruction.

At the same time the non-fluent and the moderately fluent teacher can learn with the help of carefully prepared materials. Her foreign language teaching ability can improve and student learning without a specialist is possible. It is important, however, to keep in mind that teachers who are not specialists generally produce somewhat lower achievement. Though lower, this achievement is nevertheless significant, even when compared to the specialist's results. The main area in which lower achievement occurs when children are not taught by specialists is in their ability to make oral responses.

The Specialist Foreign Language Teacher

Groups of children taught by *specialists* will generally be superior in all categories. There is, however, a significant shortage of well-qualified specialists to produce these desirable results. It is advisable for a school system to employ the help of at least one specialist who can give children occasional intensive practice and help the regular classroom teacher. This specialist will be of special value in helping pupils to learn correct pronunciation as well as strengthening other aspects of oral skills, particularly immediacy of responses, and the appropriateness of the responses.

The foreign language specialist can be utilized to the greatest advantage if she is employed as a supervisor, a demonstration teacher, and an in-service person. Such a specialist can visit classrooms, encourage classroom participation, suggest techniques, and conduct in-service meetings. In some cases it may be possible for this specialist to replace entirely the televised teacher preview.

In-Service Programs

In-service programs are often provided for the classroom teacher to improve her command of the foreign language. In turn the teachers who attend these classes are better able to provide an adequate opportunity for all the students to learn a second language.

Through in-service the non-fluent teacher receives psychological support and reassurance in her position in the classroom. The in-service class does, however, require her active participation if it is to be of value in the classroom. Thus the teacher's ability to use the foreign language in the classroom can improve and positively affect her class's achievement.

The Role of the Parent

The most ineffective ETV foreign language program is the one in which there is no practice in the classroom or at home. The widely used open-circuit TV offers a new and unique opportunity for the *parents* to become directly involved and to cooperate more effectively in their children's education. This parent help at home, combined with viewing the foreign language telecasts and eclectic classroom teacher-directed practice provides for even more effective learning of the foreign language.

Administrative Responsibilities

The administration has a number of responsibilities if the ETV foreign language program is to be a success. Many of these responsibilities must be considered before selecting a particular program. Cost is an important item to consider. The more children who can watch the program, the lower the cost will be. Lighting and electrical facilities must be examined to see if changes must be made before ETV can be used. Seating and scheduling problems must be worked out. No more than 30 children should watch one television set at a time, so the availability of television sets is significant. Careful preparations are necessary to insure success.

Because the classroom teacher plays such an important role in assuring the success of ETV, school administrators should show interest in her efforts and provide encouragement. In-service training should be supplied for those teachers who need it. This can be in the form of in-service classes, regular workshops, summer courses, or the guidance of a foreign language specialist. The administration should be sure that the teacher views the lessons and previews the coming lessons.

The Place of ETV in the Foreign Language Program in the School

Instructional television may be the only means of supplying foreign language instruction in small isolated school systems. It may be an answer where, for lack of a teacher, a foreign language is not taught at all, or where intermediate and advanced courses cannot be justified because enrollments are very small. In any school system it may be a means of using an unusually gifted instructor to teach large groups of students. The cost is moderate or great, depending upon the type of installation desired, closed circuit or sets using only broadcasts from commercial or educational stations, but its proportional cost does diminish with the greater number of students depending upon it for instruction.

When used properly, television for educational instruction of a foreign language can greatly increase the student's facility in the skills.

ETV Foreign Language Courses and the Junior High School

ETV foreign language courses have not yet commonly found their way into the junior high school curriculum. Data is not as yet available to prove the effectiveness of using TV for foreign language instruction at that level. Before such data will be of value, it will be necessary to develop programs that are designed specifically for the junior high school student.

ETV Foreign Language Courses and the Senior High School

With the increasing number of high school students interested in foreign language courses the time may soon arrive for some school districts when the supply of students exceeds the supply of qualified foreign language instructors. ETV foreign language courses may then become an integral part of the high school foreign language curriculum. There are also possibilities for utilizing the teaching techniques of ETV to expand the cultural knowledge of students in foreign language courses. It may be helpful to have lectures on foreign language literature presented over TV by well-informed college instructors of foreign language literature courses. Such an offering might be particularly helpful for providing cultural and literary insights to the advanced student in the nine year sequence. With inter-continental TV becoming part of our environment, there is also the possibility of using foreign telecasts as a motivating factor to keep interest in foreign languages alive among high school students.

ETV Foreign Language Courses and Colleges

Many college foreign language courses are presently being taught by ETV. Lectures are presented by television and usually followed by small group sessions and laboratory practice. Some research seems to indicate that such instruction is just as effective as classes taught by more conventional methods in the past.

Future Possibilities

A new and yet relatively undeveloped field in foreign language learning is that of programed instruction. The future ETV programs may combine TV telecasts and laboratory practice with programed instruction. As programed instruction can adapt more readily to individual differences than television alone, the resulting learning may take foreign language instruction one step closer to its goal of fluency in the four basic skills for each student.

All the present and future ETV foreign language courses will have to maintain a high level of showmanship or the medium will lose out and its effect on education will decline.

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Chapter X

TEACHER QUALIFICATIONS AND PREPARATION

Certification

By September, 1965, all foreign language teachers who are newly employed in the state of Minnesota public schools shall meet one of the following sets of requirements:

1. A teacher certified to teach in the special field of modern foreign languages in grades 1-12
   a. A Bachelor's degree upon the completion of a teacher education program with a language major from an accredited teacher-preparing institution
   b. Eighteen semester credits in education including a methods course in foreign language teaching at both the elementary and secondary levels and supervised student teaching at both levels
   c. A rating of GOOD or SUPERIOR by the language department of the teacher preparing institution in five of the seven competencies defined in the Modern Language Association, "Qualifications for Secondary School Teachers of Modern Foreign Languages," and at least a minimal rating in the remaining two competencies. The five competencies are to include aural understanding, speaking, reading, and writing
2. A secondary school teacher of a modern foreign language
   a. Those with a major in the language
      (1) A Bachelor's degree upon the completion of a teacher education program with a language major from an accredited teacher-preparing institution
      (2) Eighteen semester credits in education including methods and supervised student teaching at the secondary level
      (3) A rating of GOOD or SUPERIOR by the language department of the teacher-preparing institution in four of the seven competencies defined in the MLA "Qualifications for Secondary School Teachers of Modern Foreign Languages," and at least a minimal rating in the remaining three competencies. The four competencies are to include aural understanding, speaking, and reading
   b. Those with less than a major in the modern foreign language
      (1) A Bachelor's degree upon the completion of a teacher education program from an accredited teacher-preparing institution with a minimum of 20 semester credits in each foreign language to which he is assigned. One semester credit may be allowed for each unit of high school language, but not to exceed three
      (2) Eighteen semester credits in education including a methods course and/or supervised student teaching of a language
3. An elementary school teacher of a modern foreign language
   a. A Bachelor's degree upon the completion of a teacher education program from an accredited teacher preparing institution with a minimum of 20 semester credits in each language to which he is assigned. One semester credit may be allowed for each unit of high school language, but not to exceed three
   b. Thirty semester credits in education including a methods course in the teaching of foreign languages and supervised student teaching at the elementary level in the usual subject-matter areas
   c. A rating of GOOD or SUPERIOR by the language department of the teacher-preparing institution in the competency of speaking as defined in the MLA "Qualifications for Secondary School Teachers of Modern Foreign Languages."
4. A teacher certified to supervise foreign language instruction in grades 1-12
   a. A Master's degree with a major in a modern foreign language or a major in the teaching of modern foreign languages from an accredited teacher-preparing institution
   b. Eighteen semester credits in education including a methods course in foreign language teaching at both the elementary and secondary levels and supervised student teaching at both levels
   c. A rating of GOOD or SUPERIOR by the language department of the teacher-preparing institution in six of the seven competencies defined in the MLA "Qualifications for Secondary School Teachers of Modern Foreign Languages," and at least a minimal rating in the remaining competency. The six competencies are to include aural understanding, speaking, reading, writing, and professional preparation
   d. At least two years of successful teaching experience as a teacher of modern foreign languages in either the elementary or the secondary school

An accredited teacher-preparing institution may recommend a native speaker of a modern foreign language for certification as a teacher in category 1, 2, or 3 when he has met the following requirements:

1. An education comparable to that of a Bachelor of Arts or Science in the United States as determined by the teacher-preparing institution
2. A sound knowledge of the structure of English and of the native language as determined by the teacher-preparing institution
3. Eighteen semester credits in education including a methods course in the teaching of foreign languages and supervised practice teaching in the language
4. A rating of GOOD or SUPERIOR by the language department of the teacher-preparing institution in six of the seven competencies as defined in the MLA "Qualifications for Secondary School Teachers of Modern Foreign Languages," and at least a minimal rating in the one remaining competency

Qualifications for Secondary School Teachers

The following important statement, approved for publication by the executive boards of nine national and nine regional foreign language associations was published in September, 1955. It says, in effect, that the profession of modern foreign language teachers will no longer accept responsibility for results obtained in the classroom by instructors who are inadequately prepared to teach languages. By implication it deplores the current practice of certifying teachers to teach by noting credits and/or letter of recommendation instead of by *testing* relevant qualifications. Foreign language study in America has long suffered from widely publicized failures on the high school level. Now, language teachers are fixing blame for those failures. Whose responsibility is it to see that your child learns French from someone who can really speak French and who knows something about French culture?

It is vitally important that teachers of modern foreign languages be adequately prepared for a task which more and more Americans are declaring essential to the national welfare. Though a majority of the language teachers in the schools are well trained, many have been poorly or inadequately prepared, often through no fault of their own. Therefore, this statement of what is considered minimal, good, and superior qualifications of a secondary school teacher of a modern foreign language is presented.

We regret that the minimum here stated *cannot yet* include real proficiency in the foreign tongue or more than a superficial knowledge of the foreign culture. It must be clearly understood that teaching by persons who cannot meet this minimal standard will not produce results which our profession can endorse as making the distinctive contribution of language learning to American life in the second half of the twentieth century.

The lowest level of preparation is not recommended. It is here stated only as a point of departure which carries with it the responsibility for continued study and self-improvement, through graduate and in-service training, toward the levels of good and superior preparation.

Those who subscribe to this statement hope that the teacher of foreign languages (1) will have the personal qualities which make an effective teacher, (2) has received a well-balanced education, including a knowledge of American culture, and (3) has received the appropriate training in professional education, psychology, and secondary school methods. It is not our purpose to further define these criteria. We are concerned here with the specific criteria for a teacher of modern foreign languages.

1 Aural Understanding

Minimal: The ability to get the sense of what an educated native says when he is enuncating carefully and speaking simply on a general subject

Good: The ability to understand conversation at average tempo, lectures, and news broadcasts

Superior: The ability to follow closely and with ease all types of standard speech, such as rapid or group conversation, plays, and movies

Test: These abilities can be tested by dictation, by the Listening Comprehension Tests of the College Entrance Examination Board, thus far developed for French, German, and Spanish, or by similar tests for these and other languages, with an extension in range and difficulty for the superior level

2 Speaking

Minimal: The ability to talk on prepared topics without obvious faltering; for example, classroom situations, and to use the common expressions needed for getting around in the foreign country, speaking with a pronounciation readily understandable to a native

Good: The ability to talk with a native without making glaring mistakes, and with a command of vocabulary and syntax sufficient to express one's thoughts in sustained conversation. This implies speech at normal speed with good pronunciation and intonation

Superior: The ability to approximate native speech in vocabulary, intonation, and pronunciation; for example, the ability to exchange ideas and to be at ease in social situations

Test: For the present, this ability has to be tested by interview or by a recorded set of questions with a blank disc or tape for recording answers

3 Reading

Minimal: The ability to grasp directly, that is, without translating, the meaning of simple, non-technical prose, except for an occasional word

Good: The ability to read with immediate comprehension prose and verse of average difficulty and mature content

Superior: The ability to read, almost as easily as in English, material of considerable difficulty, such as essays and literary criticism

Test: These abilities can be tested by a graded series of timed reading passage, with comprehension questions and multiple-choice of free-response answers

4 Writing

Minimal: The ability to write correctly sentences or paragraphs, such as would be developed orally for classroom situations, and the ability to write a short, simple letter

Good: The ability to write a simple "free composition" with clarity and correctness in vocabulary, idiom, and syntax

Superior: The ability to write on a variety of subjects with idiomatic naturalness, ease of expression, and some feeling for the style of the language

Test: These abilities can be tested by multiple-choice syntax items, dictation, translation of English sentences of paragraphs and a controlled letter or free composition

5 Language Analysis

Minimal: A working command of the sound-patterns and grammar-patterns of the foreign language, and a knowledge of its main differences from English

Good: A basic knowledge of the historical development and present characteristics of the language, and an awareness of the difference between the language as spoken and as written

Superior: Ability to apply knowledge of descriptive, comparative, and historical linguistics to the language-teaching situation

Test: Such information and insight can be tested for levels 1 and 2 by multiple-choice and free-response items on pronounciation, intonation

patterns, and syntax; for levels 2 and 3, items on philology and descriptive linguistics

6 Culture

Minimal: An awareness of language as an essential element among the learned and shared experiences that combine to form a particular culture and a rudimentary knowledge of the geography, history, literature, art, social customs, and contemporary civilization of the foreign people

Good: Firsthand knowledge of some literary masterpieces, and understanding of the principal ways in which the foreign culture resembles and differs from our own, and possession of an organized body of information on the foreign people and their civilization

Superior: An enlightened understanding of the foreign people and their culture, achieved through personal contact, preferably by travel and residence abroad, through study of systematic descriptions of the foreign culture and through study of literature and the arts

Test: Such information and insight can be tested by multiple-choice literary and cultural acquaintance tests for levels 1 and 2; for level 3, written comments on passages of prose or poetry that discuss or reveal significant aspects of the foreign culture

7 Professional Preparation

Note the final paragraph of the prefatory statement

Minimal: Some knowledge of effective methods and techniques of language teaching

Good: The ability to apply knowledge of methods and techniques to the teaching situation; for example, audio-visual techniques, and to relate one's teaching of the language to other areas of the curriculum

Superior: A mastery of recognized teaching methods and the ability to experiment with and evaluate new methods and techniques

Test: Such knowledge and ability can be tested by multiple-choice answers to questions on pedagogy and language-teaching methods, plus written comment on language-teaching situations

The foregoing statement was prepared by the Steering Committee of the Foreign Language Program of the Modern Language Association of America, and was subsequently endorsed for publication by the MLA Executive Council, by the Modern Language Committee of the Secondary Education Board, by the Committee on the Language Program of the American Council of Learned Societies, and by the executive boards or councils of fifteen other national or regional language organizations.[15]

MLA Foreign Language Proficiency Tests

General Information. The Modern Foreign Language Association with the active collaboration of the Educational Testing Service is engaged in the development and production of proficiency tests for teachers and advanced students. The tests cover seven competencies — listening comprehension, speaking, reading, writing, applied linguistics, culture-civilization, and professional preparation. They are in five languages — French, German, Spanish, Italian, and Russian. There are two forms of each test for pre- and post-testing purposes. (1) They were developed under the auspices of NDEA language development program. The tests are now available for general use and can be purchased from the Education and Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, (2) Norms have been established based on over 100,000 test cases in pre- and post-test situations.

A complete battery of seven tests in either form A or form B will require just under four hours of testing time; Listening Comprehension, 20 minutes; Speaking, 15 minutes; Reading, 40 minutes; Writing, 45 minutes; Applied Linguistics, 40 minutes; Culture-Civilization, 30 minutes; Professional Preparation, 45 minutes.

The Speaking test is planned to allow for student reception from master tapes through earphones at individual recording positions. The Listening test can also be received through earphones at individual positions although examinee response is with paper and pencil. All other tests are administered as pencil and paper tests.

Among the uses contemplated are placement, diagnostic, and proficiency measurement in graduate programs and very probably in undergraduate major programs at advanced levels. Institutions are already using them in connection with graduate language requirements. Some state certifying agencies use them for certification requirements. The MLA Foreign Language Program Research Center, 4 Washington Place, New York 11, welcomes inquiries about the tests.

Implementation. The institutions of higher education need to be concerned about the insufficient supply of qualified language teachers being graduated from the public elementary and secondary schools of Minnesota. The need for language teachers at all levels will rise in the next decade and in order to meet the growing desire for the longer sequences in language learning, the teacher-training institutions must adapt their foreign language programs to meet the demand. They will need to reconsider the program for the preparation of superior teachers in the modern language field.

The general education program for the prospective modern language teacher should be designed to give him more power and background in the geography, history, culture, and institutions of the countries where his language is spoken. He will also need to have competence in English and knowledge of its structure and culture. Superior modern language teachers must have a broad liberal education, including some insights into the fields of linguistics, cultural anthropology, general psychology, as well as educational and social psychology.

The modern language teacher is expected to have attained a high level of proficiency in all phases of the language: listening, comprehension, speaking, reading, writing, language analysis, and cultural analysis. He will be best prepared when he has had the advantage of a continuing language experience from elementary school through college. He has the right to expect that a substantial number of his college courses in language, literature, and culture will be conducted in the foreign language.

An example of a program which could prepare a candidate adequately for the teaching of modern foreign languages is the following, which could, of course, be adapted to fit any language.

The beginning and intermediate foreign language courses in college must

[15] The National Interest and Foreign Languages. William Riley Parker, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. January, 1957. pp. 129–133.

vary with the previous preparation and background of the students. In high schools, students will have had greater opportunity to learn or begin learning one of the commonly taught languages. Students may have to obtain initial instruction of other languages in college. By the time the student has completed the intermediate course, he should have attained reasonable competency in the four areas of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. He will then be ready to pursue the specialized program leading to a teaching major in modern foreign language.

Composition and conversation would each be expanded to at least one semester or two quarters of composition and two semesters or three quarters of conversation. Stress would be placed on developing language usage for real and practical situations commensurate with all age levels of public school students.

The course on civilization and culture would be a systematic examination of the cultural forces which have shaped a country's life and thought as well as the influences exerted upon American life and thought. This course, conducted in the language, would be of at least one full year's duration. As the title implies, *all* aspects of a nation's cultural heritage would be examined, which would also provide the student with a sense of historical perspective.

The literature would consist of a one-year survey of significant literary contributions. Since literature is a reflection of culture, an attempt would be made to interpret the literary works as a reflection of the culture. Less attention would be devoted to analysis of style and form as a purely esthetic exercise. An important addition to the study of literature, especially for future language teachers, would be the study of ways to teach literature as a work of art.

Two courses, one in applied linguistics and one in the teaching of English as a foreign language, would complete the student's formal background as a modern foreign language teacher. Each of these two subjects would provide the student with background and insight into his own language which is mandatory for the successful teaching of another language. A study of the teaching of English as a foreign language would also provide some knowledge of the conflict points that foreigners encounter when learning English.

With a general professional background and a thorough knowledge of the target language, the prospective modern language teacher is ready for a course in the methods of language teaching and supervised student teaching. The class work in methods and materials should deal with the problems of modern language teaching from kindergarten through grade 12. It should preferably be concerned with the major language which the student is preparing to teach. Specifically, the work in this area should include:

1. An examination of the policy statements of the Modern Language Association
2. An investigation of the new concepts in the psychology of language learning
3. Training in the classroom techniques needed to achieve these objectives
4. Practice in the construction of appropriate tests and evaluative criteria for these objectives
5. Considerable training in the use of electronic equipment, in machine-drill techniques as well as training in the selection, production and use of visual aids. Some acquaintance with programed learning, its uses and potential, must be included
6. Guidance in the development of articulated programs of modern language study throughout all levels of the curriculum
7. Experiences with reading materials on the various levels in the target language. Prospective teachers should also be familiar with children's literature and magazines written for adolescents. A familiarity with reading materials for students of all ages is necessary so that the teacher will be prepared to teach any level
8. Opportunity, wherever possible, to observe teachers who are working with academically talented and with the slower learning students
9. Opportunity for the prospective teacher to demonstrate his teaching techniques by teaching his classmates in the methods course
10. Guidance in supplementing regular class work with extra-curricular or co-curricular activities
11. Opportunity to examine and evaluate recent teaching materials.

The prospective teacher might begin his professional preparation in the sophomore year by following an organized program of visiting and observing selected foreign language classes. This must be succeeded by a carefully supervised practice teaching program in the junior and senior years. The observation and actual practice teaching should be done at all levels of language learning. Admittedly, this plan would present difficulties in scheduling, but in view of the results, the effort would certainly be justified.

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FILMS

Audio-lingual Techniques for Teaching Modern Foreign Languages. A Series of 8 films, each approximately 30 minutes in length. Two films each are devoted to French, German, Spanish, and Russian. Film one shows a class near the end of the 8th month of instruction, part one of film two deals with the first day of a beginning language class and part two with the drills and pattern practices teachers use in a class. An instructor's Manual goes with each language series. Available from MLA Foreign Language Research Center, 4 Washington Place, New York City.

Principles and Methods of Teaching a Second Language. A series of five films:

I. The Nature of Language and How it is Learned
II. The Sounds of Language
III. The Organization of Language
IV. Words and Their Meanings
V. Modern Techniques in Language Teaching

Each film is 32 minutes in length. The series was produced by the Modern Language Association and the Center for Applied Linguistics in cooperation with Teaching Film Custodians. Distributed by Teaching Film Custodians, Inc., 25 West 43rd Street, New York.

These films are specifically focused on the subject of language teaching methodology. They are accompanied by an Instructor's Manual available from the Center for Applied Linguistics, 1755 Massachusetts Avenue Northwest, Washington, D.C.

The Two O'Clock Class. A 20-minute film made in an unrehearsed classroom teaching situation showing teacher and students working on units 16 and 17 of the Holt-Rinehart-Winston Spanish language materials *Entender y Hablar.* It shows the audio-lingual approach and demonstrates the use of the tape-recorder in the classroom. A guide sheet contains questions for discussion. Obtainable from Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., Foreign Language Department, 383 Madison Avenue, New York 17, New York.

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. . . *The Language Laboratory as a Teaching Machine,* Volume I. Publications of the Language Laboratory, U. of Michigan, 1961.

Najam, Edward W. (ed.). *Material and Techniques for the Language Laboratory.* Report of the Language Laboratory Conference, Purdue University, March 23–25, 1961. International Journal of American Linguistics, Vol. 27, Part 2, October, 1961. $4.00. Available from the Director of Publications, Indiana University Research Center in Anthropology, Folklore and Linguistics Publications, Bloomington, Indiana.

Oinas, Felix, J. ed. *Language Teaching Today.* Report of the Language Laboratory Conference, Indiana University, January 22–23, 1960. $4.00. Available from the Director of Publications, Indiana University Research Center in Anthropology, Folklore and Linguistics Publications, Bloomington, Indiana.

Stack, Edward M. *The Language Laboratory and Modern Language Teaching.* New York: Oxford U., 1960, $3.95.

Integrated Materials for the Elementary School

FRENCH

Brooks, Robert, et al. *Introducing French* (4th grade) *Premier Cours* (5th grade), *Deuxieme Cours* (6th grade), *Troisieme Courts* (7th grade). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1964.

Includes pupil texts, teacher's guides, display charts, and tape recordings. There are workbooks for some levels. Above books take place of Level I (*Le Français, Ecouter et Parler*). See Junior High materials.

Eriksson, Marguerite A., and others. *Course of Study for the Teaching of French in the Elementary School.* York, Pa.: The York City School District, 1960. 61 p.

A three year course including songs, games, cultural units and tests.

Guberina, Peter, and Paul Rivenc. *Bonjour Line.* Philadelphia, Pa.: Chilton Books, 1963.

A beginning program incorporating texts, filmstrips and tapes for grades 4, 5, 6. Designed to lead into *Voix et Image de France.* (See Junior High materials).

Leblanc, Annette. *Nous Sommes Amis.* Boston: Ginn, 1964. Student texts, teacher's manual, records.

Modern Language Association of America. *MLA Teacher's Guide: Beginning French in Grade three, Revised. Continuing French in Grade Four, Revised.* Darien, Conn.: Educational Publishing Corp., 1955.

Materials on objectives, teachers' instructions, units, songs, games, disc recordings. Unit approach with situational dialogues.

Parlon Français. Boston, Mass.: Heath de Rochemont Corp. (Available on educational television or as a filmed course for purchase.)

Televised in Minnesota and in other states. Materials include student practice discs, activity books, teacher's guide.

Raymond, M., and Claude L. Bourcier. Elementary French Series. Boston, Mass.: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1960. Book 1, *Bonjour.* Book 2, *Venez Voir.* Book 3, *Je Sais lire.* Book 4, *Je lis avec joie.* First two books have illustrations only. Books 3 and 4 introduce reading.

GERMAN

Burgdorf, I., and others. *Deutcsh durch Audio-Visuelle Methode.* Philadelphia, Pa.: Chilton, 1961.

Filmstrips, magnetic tapes, take home records, student text, teacher's manual.

Ellert, Ernest E. and Lois V. Ellert. *A Teacher's Manual. Die Brucke Band I. Die Brücke, Band II. Ende Gut, Alles Gut.* Greeley, Colorado: Colorado State College.

Situational units for grades 3-6. Includes a reading book, activity book, tests.

Everyday Life and Language in Germany, Mequon, Wisc.: Communications Media Service, 1961.

Filmstrips, tape recordings, teacher's guide.

Modern Language Association of America. *MLA Teacher's Guide:* Beginning German in Grade Three. Darien, Conn.: Educational Publishing Corp., 1956.

Materials on objectives, teacher's instructions, units, games, songs. Includes enough material for two years of work.

Oplesch, Hedi, *Komm Lach und Lerne, Hand in Hand durch Kinderland, Auf Deutsch, Bitte.* Robbinsdale, Minn.: Robbinsdale Public Schools, Independent School District 281.

TV lessons provide for follow-up activities in classroom. Unit organization based on dialogues. Teacher guide, student books, tape recordings.

Schlimbach, Alice. *Kinder Lernen Deutsch.* Munich: Max Hueber Verlag, 1964. Basic text, tape recordings.

SPANISH

Babcock, Edna and others. Children of the Americas Series. Grade 3 or 4. *Rosita y Panchito*, Grade 5 or 6, *Los viajeritos venturosas*, Grade 6 or 7, *Paco en Peru*, Grade 7 or 8, *Miguel en Mexico.* San Francisco, Calif.: Harr Wagner Publishing Co., 1957–58.

Includes texts, discs, teacher's manual, vocabulary cards.

Brady, Agnes Marie. *Mi Libro de Espanol* (Grade 4 or 5). *Adelante* (Grade 5 or 6). Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1962.

Brooks, Robert, et al. *Introducing Spanish* (4th grade); *Primer Curso* (5th grade); *Segundo Curso* (6th grade); *Tercer Curso* (7th grade). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1964.

Includes pupil texts, teacher's guide, display charts and tape recordings. There are workbooks for some levels. Above books take place of Level I (*Espanol, Entender y Hablar*). (See Junior High Materials.)

de Prado, Yvette. *Una Aventura Espanola.* Boston: Heath de Rochemont, 1963. For grades 4-8.

Includes films, records, teacher's guides, tests, pupil texts. Based on a popular California educational television program.

Hathaway, Howard. *Ya Hablamos Espanol.* St. Paul, Minnesota: Minnesota Council for School Television. KTCA-TV.

This television series is seen on Minnesota educational television. It is designed for grades 4, 5, and 6. Supplementary materials include teacher's guides, activity books, texts and tape recordings.

Langford, Walter, Charles E. Parnell and M. Raymond. *Buenos Dias* (Bk. I) *Venga a Ver* (Bk. II), *Yo Se Leer* (Bk. III), *Me Gusta Leer*, (Bk. IV). Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.

Includes student text, teacher's edition. First two books have pictures only.

Modern Language Association of America. MLA Teacher's Guide: *Beginning Spanish in Grade Three; Continuing Spanish in Grade Four; Continuing Spanish in Grade Five; Continuing Spanish in Grade Six.* Darien, Conn.: Educational Publishing Corp., 1958–1960.

Guides follow a unit organization and are based on situational dialogues. Songs, games and suggestions regarding techniques are included. Recordings for each level.

Oller, John W. *La Familia Fernandez.* Wilmette, Illinois: Encyclopedia Britannica Films Inc., 1963.

Includes films, filmstrips, teacher's manual, recordings, student texts.

Schmitt, Conrad. *Let's Speak Spanish.* St. Louis, Mo.: McGraw, 1964.

For grades 4-6. Includes pupil picture book, teacher's guide, records, pictures and tests.

Scott, Tirsa Scavedra. *Somas Amigos.* Boston: Ginn, 1964.

Student texts, teacher's manual, and records.

Teacher References

Dunkel, Harold B. and Roger A. Dillet. *French in the Elementary School.* The U. of Chicago Press, 1962.

Eriksson, Marguerite, Ilse Forest and Ruth Mulhauser. *Foreign Languages in the Elementary School.* Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, 1964.

Finocchiaro, Mary. *Teaching Children Foreign Languages.* New York: McGraw, 1964.

Keesee, Elizabeth. *Modern Foreign Languages in the Elementary School: Teaching Techniques*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education. Bulletin No. 29, OE-27007. 1960.

Keesee, Elizabeth. *References on Foreign Languages in the Elementary School*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education. Bulletin OE-27008B. 1963.

Modern Language Association of America, *FLES Packet*. New York: MLA Foreign Language Program Research Center, 4 Washington Place East, New York 3.

Modern Language Association of America. *MLA Selective List of Materials*. New York: MLA Foreign Language Program Research Center, 4 Washington Place East, New York 3, 1962 (Revisions planned at intervals). An invaluable document containing the most up-to-date listing of all materials, including basic programs, songs, games, visuals, for example.

Integrated Materials for the Secondary Schools

*French**

Grades 7-9, 10-12
Levels I-III

Côté, Dominique, Sylvia N. Levy, Patricia O'Connor.
Le Français: Écouter et Parler. (Level I)
Le Français: Parler et Lire. (Level II)
Le Français: Lire, Parler et Écrire. (Level III).
New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1962–1964.
The first year text uses situational dialogues and is supplemented by a workbook, home study records and a tape program. Level II and III texts introduce narrative prose, composition and finally unsimplified selections from contemporary literature.

Grades 7-9, 10-12
Levels I-IV

Evans, James A., and Marie Baldwin. *Learning French the Modern Way*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1963.
This four year course includes student texts, tapes, films, filmstrips, tests, and teacher's guide.

Grades 9-12
Levels II-III

Pathescope-Berlitz Audio-Visual French Language Series.
New Rochelle: Pathescope, 1961.
Eight sets of five lessons each for supplementary use with a basic course. Each set has five color filmstrips filmed in France with dialogues recorded on tape or disc by native speakers.

Grades 7-9, 10-12
Level I

Rivenc, P., P. Guberina, and others. *Voix et Images de France*. Philadelphia: Chilton Co., 1961.
This is a set of thirty-two filmstrips of color and black and white drawings with tapes recorded by native speakers, textbooks, and a teacher's manual.

Grades 7-9, 10-12
Levels I-III

Rosselot, LaVelle. *Je Parle Français*. Chicago: Encyclopedia Britannica Films, 1961.
This three year program is made up of 120 colored or black and white film lessons, 120 tape recordings, student manuals, and a teacher's manual.

Grades 7-9, 10-12
Levels I-IV

Thompson, Mary P., Sharon Entwistle, Marilynn Ray and consultants. *A-LM French: Levels I-IV*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1961–1964.
Level I material is presented in basic dialogues plus supplementary drills. Levels II-IV present prose of increasing difficulty. Supplemented by picture posters, practice records, tapes, and teacher's manual.

*German**

Grades 7-9, 10-12
Level I

Burgdorf, and others. *Deutsch durch Audio-Visuelle Methode*. Philadelphia: Chilton Co., 1961.
Filmstrips, recordings, texts and teacher's manual make up the course. Tapes contain a dialogue, and supplementary drills.

Grades 9-12
Levels I-V

Mueller, Hugo J.
Deutsch, Erstes Buch (Level I, II)
Deutsch, Zweites Buch (Level III, IV)
Deutsch, Drittes Buch (Level IV, V).
Milwaukee: Bruce Publishing Co., 1958–1962.
First book uses dialogues supported by oral and written drills, narratives and tape recordings. Pictures aid learning dialogues. Second and third books contain articles and short selections from literature.

Grades 9-12
Levels II-III

Pathescope-Berlitz Audio-Visual German Language Series.
New Rochelle: Pathescope, 1961.
Six sets of five lessons each for supplementary use with a basic course. Each set has five color filmstrips filmed in Germany with dialogues recorded on tape or disc by native speakers.

Grades 7-9, 10-12
Levels I-IV

Rehder, Helmut, Ursula Thomas, Freeman Twaddell, Patricia O'Connor.
Deutsch: Verstehen und Sprechen. (Level I)
Deutsch: Sprechen und Lesen. (Level II)
Deutsch: Lesen und Denken. (Level III).
New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1962.
The first year text uses situational dialogues and is supplemented by a workbook, home study records and a tape program. Level II and III texts introduce narrative prose, composition and finally unsimplified selections from contemporary literature.

Grades 9-12
Levels I-IV

Schulz, Dora, and Heinz Griesbach. *Deutsche Sprachlehre für Ausländer, Erste Stufe* and *Deutsche Sprachlehre für Ausländer, Zweite Stufe*. Munich: Max Hueber Verlag, 1962.
The material in these texts should be preceded by audio-lingual work in the text *Ich Spreche Deutsch* by Griesbach (Max Hueber Verlag). All books have accompanying tape recordings, keys, and glossaries.

Keesee, Elizabeth. *Modern Foreign Languages in the Elementary School: Teaching Techniques.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education. Bulletin No. 29, OE-27007. 1960.

Keesee, Elizabeth. *References on Foreign Languages in the Elementary School.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education. Bulletin OE-27008B. 1963.

Modern Language Association of America, *FLES Packet.* New York: MLA Foreign Language Program Research Center, 4 Washington Place East, New York 3.

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Integrated Materials for the Secondary Schools

*French**

Grades 7-9, 10-12
Levels I-III

Côté, Dominique, Sylvia N. Levy, Patricia O'Connor.
Le Français: Écouter et Parler. (Level I)
Le Français: Parler et Lire. (Level II)
Le Français: Lire, Parler et Écrire. (Level III).
New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1962–1964.
The first year text uses situational dialogues and is supplemented by a workbook, home study records and a tape program. Level II and III texts introduce narrative prose, composition and finally unsimplified selections from contemporary literature.

Grades 7-9, 10-12
Levels I-IV

Evans, James A., and Marie Baldwin. *Learning French the Modern Way.* New York: McGraw-Hill, 1963.
This four year course includes student texts, tapes, films, filmstrips, tests, and teacher's guide.

Grades 9-12
Levels II-III

Pathescope-Berlitz Audio-Visual French Language Series.
New Rochelle: Pathescope, 1961.
Eight sets of five lessons each for supplementary use with a basic course. Each set has five color filmstrips filmed in France with dialogues recorded on tape or disc by native speakers.

Grades 7-9, 10-12
Level I

Rivenc, P., P. Guberina, and others. *Voix et Images de France.* Philadelphia: Chilton Co., 1961.
This is a set of thirty-two filmstrips of color and black and white drawings with tapes recorded by native speakers, textbooks, and a teacher's manual.

Grades 7-9, 10-12
Levels I-III

Rosselot, LaVelle. *Je Parle Français.* Chicago: Encyclopedia Britannica Films, 1961.
This three year program is made up of 120 colored or black and white film lessons, 120 tape recordings, student manuals, and a teacher's manual.

Grades 7-9, 10-12
Levels I-IV

Thompson, Mary P., Sharon Entwistle, Marilynn Ray and consultants. *A-LM French: Levels I-IV.* New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1961–1964.
Level I material is presented in basic dialogues plus supplementary drills. Levels II-IV present prose of increasing difficulty. Supplemented by picture posters, practice records, tapes, and teacher's manual.

*German**

Grades 7-9, 10-12
Level I

Burgdorf, and others. *Deutsch durch Audio-Visuelle Methode.* Philadelphia: Chilton Co., 1961.
Filmstrips, recordings, texts and teacher's manual make up the course. Tapes contain a dialogue, and supplementary drills.

Grades 9-12
Levels I-V

Mueller, Hugo J.
Deutsch, Erstes Buch (Level I, II)
Deutsch, Zweites Buch (Level III, IV)
Deutsch, Drittes Buch (Level IV, V).
Milwaukee: Bruce Publishing Co., 1958–1962.
First book uses dialogues supported by oral and written drills, narratives and tape recordings. Pictures aid learning dialogues. Second and third books contain articles and short selections from literature.

Grades 9-12
Levels II-III

Pathescope-Berlitz Audio-Visual German Language Series.
New Rochelle: Pathescope, 1961.
Six sets of five lessons each for supplementary use with a basic course. Each set has five color filmstrips filmed in Germany with dialogues recorded on tape or disc by native speakers.

Grades 7-9, 10-12
Levels I-IV

Rehder, Helmut, Ursula Thomas, Freeman Twaddell, Patricia O'Connor.
Deutsch: Verstehen und Sprechen. (Level I)
Deutsch: Sprechen und Lesen. (Level II)
Deutsch: Lesen und Denken. (Level III).
New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1962.
The first year text uses situational dialogues and is supplemented by a workbook, home study records and a tape program. Level II and III texts introduce narrative prose, composition and finally unsimplified selections from contemporary literature.

Grades 9-12
Levels I-IV

Schulz, Dora, and Heinz Griesbach. *Deutsche Sprachlehre für Ausländer, Erste Stufe* and *Deutsche Sprachlehre für Ausländer, Zweite Stufe.* Munich: Max Hueber Verlag, 1962.
The material in these texts should be preceded by audio-lingual work in the text *Ich Spreche Deutsch* by Griesbach (Max Hueber Verlag). All books have accompanying tape recordings, keys, and glossaries.

Grades 7-9
9-12
Levels I-IV

Thompson, Mary P., George Winkler and consultants. *A-LM German* (Levels I-IV). New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1961. Level I material is presented in basic dialogues plus supplementary drills. Levels II-IV present prose of increasing difficulty. Supplemented by picture posters, practice records, tapes, and teacher's manual.

*Spanish**

Grades 7-9
10-12
Levels I-IV

Brenes, Edin, et al. *Learning Spanish the Modern Way.* New York: McGraw-Hill, 1963.
This four year program includes student texts, tapes, student practice discs, films, filmstrips, tests, and teacher's manual.

Grades 7-9
10-12
Levels I-III

La Grone, Gregory G., Andrea S. McHenry, and Patricia O'Connor.
Español: Entender y Hablar (Level I)
Español: Hablar y Leer (Level II)
Español: Leer y Escribir (Level III).
New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1962–64.
The first year text uses situational dialogues and is supplemented by a workbook, home study records and a tape program. Level II and III texts introduce narrative prose, composition and finally unsimplified selections from contemporary literature.

Grades 7-9
10-12
Levels I-III

Oller, John W. *El Español por el Mundo.*
Wilmette, Illinois: Encyclopedia Britannica Films, 1964.
A film-text series currently under development. Level I is entitled *La Familia Fernández.* Includes film lessons, filmstrips, drill tapes, tests and test tapes, teacher's manual and student texts.

Grades 9-12
Levels II-III

Pathescope-Berlitz Audio-Visual Spanish Language Series.
New Rochelle: Pathescope, 1960.
Has six sets of five lessons each to supplement a basic course. Each set has five filmstrips in color filmed in Mexico and dialogues recorded by Latin American speakers.

Grades 7-9
10-12
Levels I-IV

Thompson, Mary P., Alice A. Arana, Elizabeth Nicholas de Padín and consultants. *A-LM Spanish* (Levels I-IV). New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1961–1964.
Level I material is presented in basic dialogues plus supplementary drills. Levels II-IV present prose of increasing difficulty. Supplemented by picture posters, practice recordings, tapes.

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*Also see for all languages:
Modern Language Association of America. *MLA Selective List of Materials.* New York: MLA Foreign Language Program Research Center, 4 Washington Place East, New York 3. 1962 (or latest revisions thereof).

APPENDIX A

A Sample Cultural Unit for Advanced Foreign Language Learning

Parie et la Province

Introduction

One of the fundamental precepts upon which advanced language learning is based lies in the ability of the teacher "to provide the best possible setting for the development of spontaneous communication in the language."[1] Thus the teacher must make sure that the student is surrounded by "pictures, magazines, news items, films, music, songs, and other aids to understanding the life and ways of thought of the people who speak the language." [2] But perhaps more important than just providing the cultural contexts necessary to the existence of a particular language, the teacher should actively organize these contexts to reinforce the use of the language in different settings. The structures, vocabulary, and syntax of the language being learned will then be actively used in various kinds of situations. The teacher, through this kind of approach, strongly encourages the final goal of language learning as a means, not an end. At advanced levels, while still polishing language skills, the teacher is guiding the student through organized experiences so that he will be able to select the most appropriate language for the different kinds of situations in which he might find himself.

This unit calls for the student possessing a knowledge of the culture in which the language is used. The term culture is in no sense used to mean architecture, art, literature, and music *alone*. These areas provide insights only into certain more formal aspects of a people's culture. Culture is meant to include anthropological, sociological, and informal aspects, as well as the more informal manifestations of human life. Certainly, it can be argued that everything man does is somehow tied up in language. Therefore, it would be unthinkable to include only formal evidence of man's existence in language study.

Information about this culture should be arranged in an organized manner so that the student can knowingly experience it. Perhaps the best organization for cultural information is found in the unit format. It is entirely possible that a curriculum of such cultural units could be constructed for the fourth, fifth, and sixth levels of foreign language learning. These units would attempt to present a cultural topic not only from the viewpoint of *belles lettres*, but from as many other sources and points of view as possible, thereby helping students to understand the whole of the particular culture.

Thus it is obviously impossible that one text or one set of materials can provide all of the necessary information and sources. The teacher is really the key to this unit approach. He will call upon his experience and extensive training in language and culture by using his creativity to build either upon existing textual materials or develop completely new units of work. For example, it may be possible to use a text such as Dostert, Léon, *Le Français, cours moyen*: *civilisation*, for such purposes. In this text each one of the units attempts to analyze a cultural area, but only very briefly. Some of the unit titles are:

Education
La structure sociale
Paris et la province
Sports et loisirs
Parents, etes-vous là

These topics can be expanded by readings from journals, magazines, newspapers, technical books in anthropology, geography, economics, sociology, for example, and *belles lettres*: novels, short stories, poetry, and adolescent literature. In addition, moving pictures, slides, filmstrips, charts, maps, mock-ups, music, and any other audio-visual materials may be used to facilitate learning.

Reading is not the only language activity that should be carried on. Many of the selections used could be recorded or if records of them are available they might be purchased for a permanent collection. Because listening practice is important, the student should have every possible opportunity to listen to as many voices as possible. Speaking activities are also extremely important at this level. They should consist of well-defined situational type circumstances where the student has to draw on the material he has heard and read. Writing activities must also not be forgotten. Techniques of description, dialogue writing, and letter writing might serve as general examples of the kinds of problems with which students could be provided.

The kind of unit of work here proposed is not just a simple resource unit, but rather an attempt to expand a roughly sketched area of language and culture for advanced foreign language learning. This resource-teaching unit will help widen the students language learning, provide for the use of language in varying ways and for more individualized learning and teaching at the advanced levels.

The following sample unit is constructed to correlate with Chapter VI of Dostert's *Le Français, Cours Moyens Civilisation*.[3]

The unit outline will be as follows:

Unit Title
Unit Objectives
Materials Bibliography

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[1] Rivers, Wilga M. *The Psychologist and the Foreign Language Teacher*, U. of Chicago Press, 1964. p. 157.

[2] Ibid; p. 159.

[3] Bruce: Milwaukee, 1961

Suggestions for Use of the Materials
Evaluation

The outline, contents, suggested teaching materials and techniques are by no means definitive. This unit is intended to be only suggestive of the learning possibilities cultural units can provide for advanced foreign language classes in our secondary schools.

CULTURAL UNIT

CULTURAL DIFFERENCES BETWEEN CITY AND COUNTRY IN FRANCE, OR PARIS ET LA PROVINCE

A. Objectives

1. To help students understand the informal and the formal aspects of French life.
2. To help students realize the significance of Paris as exemplary of an important metropolitan center, important not only for art, music, sculpture, and literature, but also for politics, economics, government, law, sports, military life, and religious life. In other words, to help students realize that Paris is, in a sense, *une microcosme de la civilisation française.*
3. To help students realize the importance of the provinces for a complete image of France, including not only provincial contributions to French economy, agriculture, politics, business, and more informal aspects of its culture, but also contributions to French culture of a more formal nature.
4. To help students avoid making generalizations about either the French city dweller or the French peasant that would tend to stereotype them.
5. To help students perfect the four language skills by providing them with organized tasks especially designed with this goal in mind.

B. Materials Bibliography

1. Periodical Literature

La Province

Blanc, André
"Nouveau visage de la campagne française"
Le Français dans le Monde, Numéro 17
Juin 1963; pp. 12-15

Buovolo, Hugette
"Evolution de l'agriculture française"
Le Français dans le Monde, Numéro 17
Juin 1963: pp. 37-40

Duplex, J. et H. Mendras
"Visage du paysan français"
Le Français dans le Monde, Numéro 7
Février-Mars 1962; pp. 43-48

Mendras, Henri
"Le paysan français"
Le Français dans le Monde, Numéro 7
Février-Mars 1962; pp. 2-6

Paris

Chevalier, Louis
"Paris, XXIe siècle"
Le Français dans le Monde, Numéro 22
Janvier 1964, pp. 4-8

Gallice, Pierre et André Reboullet
"Guide pédagogique de Paris"
Le Français dans le Monde, Numéro 15
Mars 1963; pp. 44-48

Goléa, Antoine
"Paris, berceau de la musique contemporaine"
Le Français dans le Monde, Numéro 5
Décembre 1961; pp. 12-15

Hanoteau, Guillaume
"Décidement les Americans ont, de Paris, une vision extravagante"
Paris Match, Numéro 692
Le 14 Juillet 1962; pp. 96-97

Michaud, Guy
"Paris, microcosme de civilisation"
Le Français dans le Monde, Numéro 1
Mai 1961; pp. 16-21

Michaud, Guy
"Pour aborder Paris"
Le Français dans le Monde, Numéro 1
Mai 1961; pp 44-48

2. Books

Blancpain, Marc et Pierre Clarac
La France d'Aujourd'hui . . . . . .
Librairie Hatier: Paris
1961; 319 pp.
Articles in:

(1) Bardin, Jean-Paul
"L'agriculture française"
pp. 190-198

(2) Ferré, André
"Paris"
pp. 43-56

(3) Ferré, André
"La vie provinciale"
pp. 56-57

Romains, Jules
Portrait de Paris
Librairie Académique Perrin: Paris
1951; 318 pp.
(A collection of essays on different aspects of Paris)

3. Literature

La Province

Chevrier, Raymond
Terres et Visages de France
Editions Nicolaus: Paris
1949; 157 pp.
(A collection of literary texts concerning different parts of the country)

Gendrot, F. et F. M. Eustache
Auteurs Français, Classe de 5e
Librairie Hachette: Paris
1952; 377 pp.
Selections
1. "Chateaux de Loire," (poème), Ch. Péguy, p. 42
2. "Paysage lorraine," M. Barrès, p. 45
3. "Sur la route de l'Ile-Grande," (poème), Ch. le Goffic, p. 53
4. "La chanson du vent," (poème), F. Fabie, p. 61
5. "Les bergere de la montagne," Joseph de Pesquidoux, p. 65

Gendrot, F. et F. M. Eustache
Auteurs Français, Classe de 6e
Librairie Hachette: Paris
1951; 578 pp.
Selections
1. "La petite ville," (poème), Countess de Noailles, p. 166
2. "Une ville de Province," H. de Balzac, p. 169

Stock, Dora and Marie Stock
Recueil de Lectures
D. C. Heath and Company: Boston
1950; 240 pp
Selections:
"Le secret de Maitre Cornille," A. Daudet, p. 59

Paris

Blancpain, M. et C. de Lignac
De Passy au Père Lachaise
Librairie Hatier: Paris
1962
(A collection of literary texts dealing with different aspects of Paris)

Frantel, Max
Paris à Deux Mille Ans
Les Cahiers d'Art de d'Amitié: Paris
1949; 204 pp.
(A collection of texts from modern authors about Paris; poetry as well as prose)

Gendrot, F. et F. M. Eustache
Auteurs Français, Classe de 6e
Librairie Hachette; Paris
1951; 378 pp.
Selections
1. "Les embarras de Paris" (poème), Boileau, p. 154
2. "Paris," A. France, p. 158
3. "Nuit de Paris," (poème), A. Samain, p. 162

4. Films

La Province

France Actuelle: Le pays et ses habitants. 1 reel. Audio-Visual Extension Service, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis 14

Here is France Today — from the wheatfields of Normandy to the steel mills of Nancy. Steel workers, grape growers, fishermen, and the truck gardeners are all here to give meaning to the study of the French language.
French Farm Family 1½ reels, color.

Purposes of the film: To show life on a typical French farm. To develop a better understanding of rural France today. To illustrate how the Common Market Organization is bringing changes to French agriculture. To show trends in French life which parallel those in the United States, such as the movement from farms to cities, the specialization of agriculture, and the mechanization of farming methods. We visit with Michel Durand and his people and observe his activities and daily work.

La Vie dans une Ferme Française 1 reel
Visiting the Duval family reveals many aspects of French farm life similar to those in our own country. We see the daily activities on the farm and the village home life when the farmers compare problems and contribute to the community.

Paris

Paris (English language) 1 reel
This film provides an accurate and interesting introduction to France's best known and best loved city, giving a feeling of the city and the people who work in it.

Paris a mon Coeur
A tour of Paris with narration in the French language by both a male and female narrator.

Paris: The City and the People English language.
A dialogue between a visiting American and a Parisien provides the framework for a visual tour of a famous city. We see how a combination of French culture, industrial progress and economic growth has made Paris into a great capital.

5. Filmstrips, Photographs, Posters, and Slides

Filmstrips

La Province

Goldsmith's Music Shop
Language Department
401 W. 42nd Street
New York, 10036

1. *Alsace* # 4506C 27 Frames with text
   Géographie physique et économique. Le Rhin
2. *Le Languedoc* # 4526C 29 Frames with text
   Le pays. La vigne. La population
3. *La vie en Camargue* # 1594C 30 Frames with text
   Végétations et paysages typiques

Paris

Goldsmith's Music Shop
Language Department
401 W. 42nd Street
New York, N. Y. 10036

1. *Paris* #1524C 34 Frames with text
   La vie à Paris. Logement. Revitaillement. Circulation. Paris, Capitale
2. *Paris* #4514C 29 Frames with text
   Aspects administratif, politique et économique de la capitale
3. *Paris I: Monuments* #1601C 23 Frames with text
   Arc de Triomphe, Carroussel, Conciergerie, Hotel de Lille, and others
4. *Paris II: Musées* #1602C 23 Frames with text
   Le Louvre et ses chefs-d'oeuvres. Cluny. Petit Palais
5. *Paris III: Églises* #1603C 27 Frames with text
   Saint-German des Prés. Saint Denis. Sainte-Chapelle. Notre-Dame, others

Films fixes de Paris
34 vues en couleur
Paris
Edita Films
9 Avenue Franklin Roosevelt
N° 1523

Photographs

Paris

1 Album, 12 planches photographiques
N° 45-16
La Documentation Française
16 rue Lord Byron
Paris, XVI

Posters

1. Air France
   685 Fifth Ave.,
   New York 22
2. Ambassade de France
   972 Fifth Ave.,
   New York 21
3. French Line
   610 Fifth Ave.,
   New York 20
4. French National Railroads
   610 Fifth Ave.,
   New York 20
5. Services Officials Français du Tourisme
   Ministère des Travaux Publics, des Transports et du Tourisme
   La Maison Française
   610 Fifth Ave.,
   New York 20

Slides

Slides for both aspects of this unit

1. Borglum, George, Jacques Salvan, and Theodore Mueller
   Images de France
   College of Education: Wayne State University
   1960
   Units 19 Monuments de Paris
   20 Paris Quotidien
   21 Paris Quotidien
   26 La France au Travail: l'Agriculture
   Units 7-18 deal with the Provinces
2. Editions Filmées
   15 rue d'Argenteuil
   Paris Ier

6. Songs

La Province

Goldsmith's Music Shop
Language Department
401 West 42nd Street
New York, 10036

1. Georges Briquet et La Chorale de Mai
   La Tour de Notre France
   OSX 185 (1-12" LP record) $5.95

Paris

French Broadcasting System Program
Songs of Old France: Paris
A program recorded from KWFM, Minneapolis, Minnesota

Goldsmith's Music Shop
Language Department

1. *Jacqueline Française*
   WL 178 with text. $4.98
2. *Patachou*
   WL 166 with text. $4.98

7. Maps and Guides — Paris and General

Le Plan Monumental de Paris
Editions Tarride: Paris

Guides Michelin
Services de Tourisme Michelin: Paris

Lacretelle, Jacques de
Paris, Les Albums de Guides Bleus
Librairie Hachette: Paris
1958; 173 pp.

8. Reference Materials

Barroux, Robert
Paris, Des Origines à Nos Jours
Payot: Paris
1951; 250 pp.

Calvet, Henri
La Société Française Contemporaine
Fernand Nathan: Paris
1956; 380 pp.

Dostert, Leon
Le Français, Cours Moyen: Civilisation
Bruce: Milwaukee
1962; 326 pp.

Lafon, Francis
"L'Explication de textes français"
La Français dans Le Monde, Numéro 3
Août-Septembre 1961, pp. 43-45

Maurois, André
Paris
Fernand Nathan: Paris
1951; 188 pp.

Métraux, Rhoda and Margaret Mead
Themes in French Culture
The Hoover Institute and Library on War, Revolution and Peace
Stanford U Press:
1954; 120 pp.

"Numero Special sur l'Enseignement de la Civilisation Française"
Le Français dans le Monde, Numéro 16
Avril-Mai 1963; pp. 1-56

Pinthon, Jean
"Suggestions pour l'explication de textes"
La Français dans le Monde, Numéro 8
Avril 1962, pp. 36-40

Pouget, P.
L'Explication Française
Librairie Hachette: Paris

Raval, Marcel
Histoire de Paris
Collection: Que sais-je?
Presses Universitaires de France: Paris
1953; 125 pp.

Wylie, Laurence and Armand Begue
Village en Vaucluse
Houghton Mifflin Company: Boston
1947; 222 pp.

Suggestions for the Use of the Materials

Developmental Activities

The developmental activities will emphasize primarily the passive language skills. This does not mean that the active language skills are to be ignored. It means that at this point they are of lesser importance because of the need for the students to gather information. In the culminating activities the student will primarily use the active language skills of speaking and writing. Here the passive skills will receive less attention.

1. The students will be first introduced to the theme of the unit by reading the selection entitled "Paris et la Province" in the Dostert text. This text, although very superficial, attempts to point out the contrasts between urban and extra-urban life. Because this text is limited in depth, students will read the following articles to achieve a more complete understanding of the topic.

Blanc: "Nouveau visage de la campagne française"
Michaud: "Paris, microcosme de civilisation"

These texts will be recorded so that the students can listen to them either before reading, while reading, or after having read them. The teacher will also create study questions in French that concentrate on the comparisons and contrasts of the two ways of life. These questions will be used as a means to stimulate class discussion about the topic in French.

2. The second means of helping students understand the contrast between city and country is to present the topic in visual form, either through films or slides. Either the Goldsmith Music Shop filmstrip series or the Wayne State slides are suitable for this purpose. These materials present the visual image and at the same time comment upon it from a prepared text which is recorded on tape and paper for further student study. Here too, study helps in French are composed by the teacher and are directed toward both individual study and class discussion.

3. The third developmental activity would be a joint class examination of the literary text on Paris in the article by Michaud, "Poor aborder Paris." The article includes texts by Anatole France, Paul Valéry, and C. F. Ramuz. The teacher will briefly explain who these authors are if the students are ignorant of them. He will also guide the students in a short "explication de texte" for each selection so that students will have examples to follow in other stages of the unit.

In order to become familiar with the "paysan français," his environment, and what people think of him, the teacher will examine with the students, in the manner described above, the six short texts that are found in the article by Duplex and Mendras, "Visages du paysan français."

These tasks will give students practice in using at least three skills: listening, speaking, and reading.

4. As a final activity at this stage of the unit, the teacher and students sum up the differences and similarities between the city and the country. Statements should be made in a concrete form so that students will be able to take notes from this discussion. They will then be asked to present their notes from this section of the unit as an organized writing exercise. This activity will help the students organize, digest, and synthesize the already discussed materials. It will also prepare them for the more individual work they will be doing later. Lastly, it will give the students a somewhat loosely controlled writing opportunity.

5. The teacher may want to teach a couple songs, one from the "Paris" group and the other from the "Province" group as a kind of break from some of the work suggested above. And it is assumed that the teacher has made an attempt to surround the students in class with pictures, posters, and drawings of both country and city life. Bulletin boards and pictures hung on the walls or other kinds of displays help serve this purpose.

Culminating Activities

In this stage of the unit the students will be working on their own and in groups for certain projects. These projects follow no specific order, but they should reflect some of the work done during the initiating activities.

1. The class is divided into four groups. Each group is given an article to read. These four articles are as follows:

Hanotaux: "Décidément les Américains ont, de Paris, une vision extravagant"
Chevalier: "Paris, XXIe siècle"
Ferré: "La vie provinciale"
Mendras: "Le paysan français"

After the articles have been thoroughly read, the students in each group are requested to write together a short skit for presentation. This skit represents some aspect of the reading that is important or outstanding. The teacher makes sure that the language used is appropriate and correct before the skit is presented to the class.

2. Each individual student is given a literary selection to read. After he has read this selection, he prepares, on the model of the one in the initiating activities, a short "explication de texte" which he will also give orally to his classmates. This "explication de texte" is carefully checked by the teacher before the student gives it without notes. The student is aware that, in its oral form as well as in its written form, this explication cannot be long. Orally it is limited to five or seven minutes.

While the student gives his explication, the other students are not idle. They must listen carefully to find out how this literary selection fits into the general theme. This kind of question will be asked in the short discussion that follows each explication.

3. The teacher creates situations by drawing on the readings in the initiating activities or by using some of the other suggested supplementary materials. A couple of examples of this kind of device follow:

> "Vous êtes parisien(ne). Vous sortez du métro au Boulevard St. Michel. Un jeune homme de la campagne vous rencontre. Il veut aller au Bois de Boulogne. Vous allez lui dire comment il peut y arriver." or"Vous êtes paysan(ne). Un parisien, un de vos parents, vient vous rendre visite. Il aime le vin que vous faites. Il veut savoir pourquoi le vin est si important aux paysans. Vous allez lui expliquer pourquoi."

The teacher should create a wide selection of situations so that the students have some choice. Students choose their topics or situations at least two days in advance of the presentation. They are assigned to work in groups of two. Students know they may not write anything in preparing for their presentation and must therefore do careful oral planning.

4. Another worthwhile group activity is the dramatization of a short story. The whole class is divided into two groups, one group choosing a story representing some aspect of Paris and the other an aspect of the country. One example that is appropriate for the country is the story of Alphonse Daudet, entitled "Le secret de Maître Cornille." The students adapt the story for presentation. The memorization of the parts for the "play" and the actual performance of it gives the students thorough practice speaking in a certain context. Even though this context and its language are very carefully controlled, the student is provided with an opportunity to communicate in French, thereby allowing him to keep his listening and speaking skills current. Following the performance of the short story, the students who played roles in the play ask, in French, questions of the other class members about the characters they represented.

5. For those students who finish all the unit requirements before the others, the teacher provides some longer literary selections. It is not necessary for students to read entire novels, but they can read the *Extraits* of these works. Students could read novels by George Sand or works by Charles Péguy to get more depth in the literary manifestations of the "country." Jules Romains is a possible choice as author for the urban aspects of the theme. These authors are by no means the only ones that might be suggested. The works chosen by the students are given to them without any definite assignment. This phase of the unit is a completely open-ended affair, a kind of extra incentive for those students who are especially capable. But once a student has selected a work of this kind, he must read it completely. The teacher will schedule a short, informal interview to discuss the general nature of the work when the student is ready.

6. As a final activity, all students are expected to write a 250 word composition wherein they attempt to point out what they feel are the contrasts and comparisons beween city and country. They may use the article "Paris" by André Ferré and the book *Village en Vaucluse* by Wylie, Chapter I, "Peyrane et ses environs" as background material. This composition can take many forms. It may be a serious or humorous essay, a letter to a friend or relative suggesting comparison and contrast of French city and country life, a description, or any other reasonable manifestation of composition. This activity is intended to bring the students' experiences and opinions of this unit to a final, formal expression.

Evaluation

Reading and Listening

1. Construct quizzes to check the reading and listening of the two articles suggested in developmental activity #1
2. Construct quizzes that would test the information imparted in developmental activity #2

Speaking and Writing

1. Evaluate group skits in culminating activity #1
2. Evaluate the spoken form of the "explication de texte"
3. Evaluate the situational presentation
4. Evaluate the written form of the group skits in culminating activity #1
5. Evaluate the written form of the "explication de texte"
6. Evaluate the final composition

Culture

Construct a final unit test in French, which would probe the students' awareness of the contrast between country and city life, the contributions of both to the total of French culture and concepts, French city dweller and French peasant.

FINAL REMARKS

This unit is an attempt to break away from a single approach to advanced foreign language learning, namely, reading of literature, because the unit includes use of all the language skills, besides offering many different varieties of reading materials, cultural and informational, as well as literary. This kind of unit approach goes beyond the one taken by the Advanced Placement Program because it deals with cultural themes, thereby opening up to student experience many different aspects of language and culture within the single foreign language area. The complexity of man's existence dictates the study of more than one manifestation of this existence. It is for this reason that the unit approach to advanced foreign language study stands on firm ground.

There may be many possible ways of organizing and using the above materials. In writing such a unit, it is obvious that many elements have been left out. It is impossible to make extremely explicit suggestions for each step of the way. No excuses are made for those techniques, procedures, or materials which have been omitted. Each individual teacher must be creative enough to adapt such suggestions to his own personality, knowledge, teaching practices, and to the available materials.

APPENDIX B

Experienced teachers know that students need to learn not only to study but *how* to study. The following things for the foreign language learner can be reproduced and distributed to students in order to help them become better learners. Language teachers will probably wish to go over these points carefully with their new students and review them with others in the first week of a school year.

STUDY HINTS FOR LEARNING A SECOND LANGUAGE*

We want you to learn your modern language as efficiently and as thoroughly as possible. Learning a second language is not difficult. It is easy if you go about it the right way. But you must be willing to do some steady work for a few minutes each day. We are offering the following study hints to help you make this easy work and fun.

A language is a *set of habits*. Our own language is a set of habits which we acquired and mastered about the age of five or six. We had to listen to other people ever since our birth and in order to communicate we copied or imitated what the people around us said. You need to do the same with this second language of yours.

1. *You must Learn to Listen and Imitate*
   We are no better than children at this stage of the game. In fact, it's worse, since our own language habits keep getting in the way.
2. *You Must Memorize*
   To learn this set of new habits you must practice, practice, practice until all the sets of new habits become automatic responses. It's as simple — and as hard — as that!
3. *Study Out Loud*
   You double your efficiency when you add auditory memory to visual memory. You quadruple your efficiency when you add motor memory. Your friends will think you crazy when they see you mumbling to yourself but don't pay any attention to them. They don't know any better.

Adapted for high school use from STUDY HINTS FOR LANGUAGE STUDENTS by William G. Moulton, Professor of Linguistics at Cornell University.

4. *Divide Your Materials into Small Units for Memorization, Then String Them Together*
   Divide your study time into small units of *fifteen minutes*. Do some other work. Then go back to another fifteen minutes of work. Do your modern language study just before you go to bed. When you are dressing in the morning try to remember and to repeat what you learned the night before. You will be surprised at the results.
5. *Make Full Use of Your Class Hour*
   Students are usually classified as dumb or smart in a language class by the way they make use of their class time. The dumb ones sit back and dream, the smarties pack 55 minutes of practice time into each class hour. When someone is reciting they are doing it right along with him.

   Note: This is not for popular consumption, but we know that students who do this and are always alert can get through solely on the basis of what they learned during class hours.
6. *You Cannot Cram in a Foreign Language Class*
   Foreign language study is steady, day by day work. You cannot cram for a swimming test. *You do not learn habits and skills that way*. Language learning is a cumulative process; you build on top of what you did the day before.
7. *You Need to Think*
   Because you are more mature than when you were a child learning your own language, you have the advantage of being able to analyze the materials you are memorizing. You will discover, for example, the way your second language changes endings. You will start making your own observations and rules accordingly. This can speed up your learning process considerably. But the only use for this "structural analysis" is to help you imitate more successfully.
8. *Guess Intelligently When you are Learning to Read the Foreign Language*
   If you are ever going to read quickly and for content, figure out what a word must mean because of the context in which it is used.
9. *Repeated Reading is Necessary*
   If you are going to remember the meaning of words you will obviously have to read them more than once. Let's suppose you have six pages to read. On each page there are ten words you do not know. If you read the six pages once and look up each of the 60 words, you probably will not remember more than ten of them. Instead of that, look up only 30 and make intelligent guesses for the remaining 30. With the time you have saved reread the six pages at least two more times, preferably at intervals of several hours. This is the way you may be able to remember as many as 25 words out of the 30 words you looked up and you will also have a pretty good idea of the meaning of the 30 which you did not look up.
   Score: 25 certain and 30 probable. That's a lot better than only 10 certain.
10. *Never Look up a Word in the Dictionary Until You have Read the Context in Which It Occurs*
    Assume you have read through a paragraph before getting lost. Now go back and read along until you come to the first word you can't seem to guess. Underline it. Look it up. Put a pencil dot in the margin to show that you have looked it up once. Reread the phrase in which the word occurs and try to fix its meaning. Go through the paragraph this way and tackle the other paragraphs in the same manner until you have read half

* Developed by University of Minnesota High School.

of the assignment. Take a break. Reread the pages you have just done. Then tackle the last half of the assignment, ending up with a rereading again.

Trouble Spots

Idioms cause trouble because they are groups of words that mean more than "the sum of their parts." Handle them as you do the single words.

DO NOT WASTE TIME ON PASSAGES YOU DO NOT UNDERSTAND

Put a verticle line in the margin and go on reading. Sometimes the passage will clear up for you when you reread. If you can not get this meaning then, ask your teacher. He is there to help you in cases like this.

If you proceed in the above manner, your reviewing will be much easier and your nuisance words, words which don't seem to stick, will stare at you until you get them out of the way.

Foreign language study boils down to a constant process of learning, forgetting a bit, relearning, forgetting a little less, and then relearning again and again until the language becomes a habit. If you learn this way you will not forget a language, even if you don't use it for a considerable length of time.

APPENDIX C

Sequence A
The Nine-Year Program 4–12

Level	*Grade*	*Time*
I	4, 5, 6	15-30 minutes a day 5 days a week
II	7, 8	½ hour daily 45-50 minutes, 3 days a week*
III	9	1 period 5 days a week
IV	10	1 period 5 days a week
V	11	1 period 5 days a week**
VI	12	1 period 5 days a week**

Sequence B
The Six-Year Program 6–12

Level	*Grade*	*Time*
I	7, 8	1 period 4 or 5 days a week
II	9	1 period 5 days a week
III	10	1 period 5 days a week
IV	11	1 period 5 days a week
V	12	1 period 5 days a week*

* See Sequence A, Note ** under Levels V and VI

Sequence C $_1$ 9-12
The Four-Year Program

Level	*Grade*	*Time*
I	9	1 period 5 days a week
II	10	1 period 5 days a week
III	11	1 period 5 days a week
IV	12	1 period 5 days a week

Sequence C $_2$
The Three-Year Program

Level	*Grade*	*Time*
I	10	1 period 5 days a week
II	11	1 period 5 days a week
III	12	1 period 5 days a week